THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER.

VOL. I.

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER;

CONTAINING

Particular Descriptions

OF THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, PRINCIPALITIES, PROVINCES, CITIES, TOWNS, DISTRICTS, FORTRESSES, HARBOURS, RIVERS, LAKES, &c.

OF

HINDOSTAN,

AND THE ADJACENT COUNTRIES,

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

AND THE

EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO;

TOGETHER WITH

SKETCHES OF THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, INSTITUTIONS, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, REVENUES, POPULATION, CASTES, RELIGION, HISTORY, &c.

OF THEIR

VARIOUS INHABITANTS.

BY WALTER HAMILTON.

SECOND EDITION.

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TO

WILLIAM ASTELL, Esq., Chairman;

JOHN LOCH, Esq., Deputy-Chairman;

AND

THE HONOURABLE COURT OF DIRECTORS

OF

The East-India Company,

&c. &c. &c.

THIS WORK

IS, WITH THEIR PERMISSION, RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED

BY THEIR MUCH OBLIGED

AND MOST OBEDIENT HUMBLE SERVANT,

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

The following work is intended to form a summary and popular account of India, and its various inhabitants, adapted principally for the perusal of those who have never visited that quarter of the world, and whose leisure has not admitted of their examining the numerous volumes through which the local descriptions are dispersed. Formerly the unceasing changes among the native powers, the vicissitudes of their politics, and the perpetual fluctuation of their boundaries, rendered the most accurate account that could be given, only suited to the particular period in which it was written; but since the establishment of the British federal system in 1818, the tranquillity of Hindostan has been rarely disturbed by war, and its territorial mutation quite insignificant. The dominions of several native chiefs continue still perplexed and intermingled, and the extent of their respective jurisdictions ill defined, but these obstacles are not of sufficient weight to preclude an attempt to class the whole alphabetically.

With respect to India beyond the Ganges, the unexpected result of the late Burmese war, begun about a small muddy island in the bay of Bengal, and concluded with the complete establishment of British predominance in that remote quarter, has been the acquisition of much valuable information regarding the condition of its interior, hitherto a region of speculation and conjecture. In the Eastern Archipelago no change of any importance has taken place since the publication of the first

edition of this work in 1815, with exception of the interchange of some colonies with the Dutch in 1825, but owing to the temporary government of many islands by British functionaries much accurate knowledge, both geographical and statistical, has been since acquired.

To form a geographical basis, Mr. Arrowsmith's six sheet map of Hindostan, and his four sheet chart of the Eastern seas have been selected, but other valuable maps and charts subsequently executed have also been consulted. Within these limits the following countries are comprehended.

West of the Indus.

Cabul, Candahar, Baloochistan, Caffristan, and all Afghanistan.

In Hindostan Proper.

The provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, Delhi, Lahore, Cashmere, Ajmeer, Mooltan, Cutch, Gujerat, and Malwa.

In the Deccan.

The provinces of Gundwana, Orissa, the Northern Circars, Candeish, Berar, Beeder, Hyderabad, Aurungabad, and Bejapoor.

India South of the Krishna River.

Canara, Malabar, Cochin, Travancore, the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, Mysore, Coimbatoor, Salem and the Barramahal, and the Carnatic.

In Northern Hindostan.

The country between the Sutuleje and Jumna, Gurwal or Serinagur, the sources of the Ganges, Kumaon, Painkhandi, Bhutant, the Nepaulese dominions, Sikkim, and also Bootan.

North of the Himalaya.

Tibet and Lahdack.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

Ava and the Burmese Empire, Laos or the Shan country, Pegu, Arracan, the British provinces south of Rangoon, Siam, the peninsula of Malacca, Assam and the adjacent states, Cachar, Munipoor, Tunquin, Cochin China, Cambodia, Siampa, &c.

THE EASTERN ISLES.

Sumatra, Java and the Sunda chain, Borneo, Celebes, and Gilolo, the Moluccas, New Guinea and the Papuan Isles, Magindanao, the Philippines, &c., and also the island of Ceylon.

In order to give distinctness and application to the facts collected, Hindostan has been partitioned in the large territorial divisions above enumerated, whose relative positions and extent will be best learned from an inspection of the prefixed map. In Hindostan Proper and the Deccan, the old Mogul provinces of Abul Fazel have been continued, as, notwithstanding the many changes they have experienced, they still maintain their place in the public mind, and are sufficiently accurate for the purpose contemplated. With respect to the south of India, as it has been for almost thirty years under the direct government of British functionaries, their local arrangements have been adhered to.

In arranging the alphabetical distribution, the usual difficulty resulting from the great variety of appellations given to the same place by Hindoos, Mahomedans and Europeans, has been experienced, and not completely surmounted. To obviate it, as much as possible, the whole of Mr. Arrowsmith's names have been adopted, as being those most universally known, and to facilitate the discovery of their places on the map. In many of the most remarkable instances, the original denomination is

also given according to Sir William Jones's orthographical system; but, although a name be not strictly applicable, it is desirable it should remain permanent, as a deviation even to more appropriate, causes much confusion. Indeed all over the East, owing to the fluctuating boundaries of the native states, the rule has been always to designate rather by the name of city, where the king or governor resided, than by any general name taken from the whole country which he governed. Another objection to an alphabetical description of a country, is that the details are unconnected, being dispersed and separated over different parts of the book, which is certainly against an arrangement in other respects remarkably convenient. To remedy this defect, in some degree, a provincial index has been added, exhibiting the names of the towns, &c. contained within the limits of the large territorial divisions and islands, to which reference may be made for further information regarding any particular portions of space.

The deities of the Hindoos have a still greater variety of names, or rather epithets (Vishnu for example has one thousand) than their towns: the most common have been preferred and adhered to throughout, and the same plan has been followed with regard to the designations of persons, tribes, and castes. In general, what appeared most interesting and important with a view to political application, or illustrative of the state of society, has been selected, and such usages described as have subsisted for the greatest length of time with the fewest variations or infringements. In composing the work, Oriental terms have been usually avoided, but from the nature of the subject could not be wholly dispensed with. A few of the most difficult will be found explained in the short glossary annexed, others in the text within a parenthesis as they occur. The plan usually followed is that of Brooks', Crutwell's, and other Gazetteers,

which on account of the great number of different articles, and the consequent necessity for abbreviation, does not admit of minute detail, or the investigation of disputed facts. From this cause also the historical portion has in many instances been abridged nearly to a chronological series of sovereigns and remarkable events.

The materials from which this work has been composed, consist of printed documents generally accessible to the public, and manuscript records deposited at the India Board, regarding which a few explanatory observations will be necessary. The British government in India is one which records and reports to England its most minute transactions, furnishing a basis for accurate history beyond those of any other state. In conformity with this principle, it is the practice of each presidency to transmit half-yearly, or according to the exigence more frequent reports in the political, financial, and judicial, military, public, legal, and ecclesiastical departments, accompanied with copies of the correspondence that has taken place with their subordinate functionaries. These official records are extremely voluminous, but their contents rarely bear directly on statistical subjects, the discussions having generally originated in some accidental irregularities, such as the robbery of treasure, disputed boundaries, the irruption of foreign tribes, defalcation of the revenue, the pupillage of native chiefs, and other matters of difficult adjustment, brought under the notice of the India Board and Court of Directors. Where no event of the nature above alluded to has taken place, and the tranquillity of the province has continued undisturbed by war or controversy, no correspondence has resulted; and its internal condition has remained so completely unnoticed, that the circumstances of several of the Company's old districts of great

wealth and population are less generally known than those of remote tracts, the very names of which are recent discoveries.

At the conclusion of the second volume a list of these and other authorities will be found, comprehending a large proportion of the ablest of the Company's servants, civil, military, and medical. Besides "Public Manuscript Documents," access to which was procured him by the late Right Honourable Mr. Canning, while President of the Board of Control, the author has been favoured with two most important private communications, which have greatly enhanced the value of the present edition. The first consists of a series of extracts from the manuscript journal of John Fullarton, Esq. of Great Stanhope-street, Hyde Park, the only European who has ever made the complete tour of Hindostan, from the Brahmaputra to Bombay, from the Himalaya Mountains to the Straits of Ceylon. These travels occupied some portions of 1817 and 1818, the half of 1819, and the whole of 1820, were performed deliberately, and with such an establishment of horses, elephants, camels, and tents, as enabled him to encamp on any spot, and leave no worthy object of curiosity uninvestigated. It is to be regretted the original journal from which these extracts were made has never been published, and the estimation attached to them will be proved by the frequency of reference.

The other document, consisting of seven large folio manuscript volumes, was received from Sir John Malcolm, K.C.B., the indefatigable promoter of every measure that can either benefit or illustrate India. These contain separate descriptions of above 6,500 towns, villages, hamlets, rivers, and mountains in Central Hindostan and the Deccan; but the imperative necessity of condensation only permitted the selection of such

as were remarkable for their size, local situation, temples, public works, or any other extraordinary feature.

In specifying the extent of countries, the whole length, but only the average breadth is given, to enable the reader to ascertain the probable area in square miles without much trouble. In an arrangement of this nature strict accuracy cannot be expected; but it appears less vague than the usual mode of stating the extreme length and extreme breadth; an approximation to the reality being all that is wanted. The same observation applies to the population of countries that have not yet been subjected to strict examination. When such occur, a comparison of their peculiar circumstances is instituted with those of the adjacent provinces, the population of which is better known, and an estimate computed from the result; where the number of inhabitants has been established on probable grounds, it is particularly mentioned. To facilitate the discovery of a place on the map, besides its latitude and longitude, its nearest distance from some distinguished city is inserted, and also the province within the limits of which it is comprehended. The east, west, north, and south sides of rivers, and the compass directions, in a great majority of cases, refer to their positions in Mr. Arrowsmith's map; the length of the rivers, including windings, are calculated according to the rules laid down in Major Rennell's Memoir. When not otherwise specified, the standard of distance and dimension is invariably the English mile, sixty-nine and a half to the degree.

Many of the above particulars, however, will require future correction, as the very best maps hitherto published, although right in the main outlines, are still deficient in accuracy as to the relative position of places. Nor will this defect be adequately rectified until the completion of the East-India Company's Atlas of India, constructed from trigonometrical survey,

begun by Col. Mackenzie, in A.D. 1800, and still in progress under Col. Hodgson, the surveyor-general of India. It is founded on the triangulation which Col. Lambton extended over the south of India, in connexion with his operations for determining the measurement of an arch of the meridian, and continued since his death by Capt. Everest. This noble monument of the Company's liberality and regard for accurate science is executed on a scale of four English miles to the inch; and judging from the eleven sheets already published, will, when finished, cover above 1,200 square feet.

The prefixed map exhibits the large provinces into which Hindostan, for the convenience of reference, has been divided; but being constructed on so minute a scale, no delineation of the boundaries that distinguish the native and British districts could be attempted. With respect to the first, no native state has yet been brought to understand the advantages we are accustomed to see in a compact territory and well-defined frontier; and with regard to the latter, the limits of none can as yet be considered as finally adjusted. Owing to this uncertainty, a town may be assigned to one jurisdiction, which in reality belongs to another; but the mistake is of no essential importance, and many similar corrections must hereafter be required before the official limits acquire such precision as to preclude the necessity of future revision. In like manner, the local functionaries may hereafter see much to amend with regard to the comparative importance of the towns selected, some, perhaps, having now no existence, although of great historical notoriety, while others may appear too insignificant to deserve insertion where others of greater modern magnitude have been omitted.

To each description of any consequence the authorities upon which it is founded are carefully subjoined in succession, according to their relative importance, the author being particularly

desirous to give the credit where it is justly due, as well as to establish the high character of the sources from whence his original information has been drawn. But no person is to be considered wholly responsible for any article, the materials being so intimately blended with each other, and the result of the author's own experience during a ten years' residence in India, that it would be impossible to define the limits of the respective properties. In various cases the narrative is given as closely as the necessity of condensing many thousand pages into a small compass would permit; in others it has been necessary to compare contradictory and conflicting testimonies, and to select that which appeared to rest on the most solid foundation. Conciseness has been particularly aimed at, and the endeavour to effect it has added greatly to the labour; for it is easy to write a description of a country when the materials are scanty, not so when the mass has been accumulating for half a century. In the official correspondence of the different presidencies the surveys and reports of one functionary are sometimes incorporated with those of another, so that occasionally the statement of one public officer cannot be discriminated from those of another; but notwithstanding these difficulties it will be clearly perceptible that the details of this work were generally collected under circumstances singularly favourable for the acquisition of accurate information, and by persons the best qualified, from length of service, residence on the spot, and established reputation, to form a correct judgment of their authenticity.

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THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER,

&c. &c.

Abdon.—One of the small Papuan isles, about three miles in circumference, situated to the north of Wageeoo, and rising 200 feet above the level of the sea. It abounds with fish and turtle, on which the inhabitants subsist, as they do not cultivate the land. Lat. 0° 30′ N., lon. 131° 15′ E.

Abdulpoor.—A town in the province of Beeder, sixty-three miles N E., from Bejapoor, lat. 17° 12′ N., lon. 76° 41′ E.

Aboo (*Aboughur, or Arbuda*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated near a chain of lofty mountains, which in 1820 was a dependency of the Sarowy Rajas, but generally possessed by some rebellious relation. Lat 24° 36 N., lon. 73° 25′ E., fifty-six miles W. by S from Odeypoor.

The height of Aboo, indicated by the barometer, has been estimated at 5,000 feet, and during the ascent, in thirty-six hours' travelling, the thermometer declined from 108° on the plains of Marwar, to 60° Fahrenheit on the summit of Aboo, under an almost vertical sun, indeed, the temperature is so mild that some European fruits are indigenous.

On the Aboo mountains are many Saiva and Jain inscriptions, the most ancient temple having been dedicated to Siva as Achileswara, so early as the seventh century. Jain temples of the eleventh century also occur, but the most numerous and important are monuments belonging to the thirteenth century, erected to deified Jain saints. From the thirteenth century Jain and Saiva inscriptions predominate alternately until the present century. Those of the Sarowy family are Saiva. The hill itself is said to have been brought from the Himalaya, by the sage Vasishta, in order that he might continue his devotions on the spot he had been accustomed to.—(*Tod, Jackson, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Abors (*or Aburs*).—A rude tribe bordering on Assam, situated above the junction of the Dihong with the main trunk of the Brahmaputra river. The hills on the right bank of the river belong to the Passal and Maying Abors; those on the left, to Padow, Silloo, Meboo, and Golemar. In 1826, when visited by a British officer, enmity, but not actual warfare, subsisted between the tribes on the opposite banks. Their weapons are a bow and poisoned arrows, a light spear, and a heavy sharp sword, the dhaw of the Singphos.

This tribe eat of every thing, pure and impure, except beef, the eaters of which they abhor. They drink a spirituous liquor of their own distillation, salt, cloth, and tobacco are in great request. They exhibit few traces of religion, but are said to sacrifice animals at the shrine of a deity named Ap-hoom, possibly the

Om of the Lama Tibetians Their dress is principally made from the bark of the uddal tree, they also wear ornamented cane caps, beads, blankets, and blanket cloaks The Abors appear to have been in the practice of levying contributions on the Assamese of the plains, and of carrying them into captivity. According to the latest information the Abor country is situated to the north of the Brahmaputra about lat. 28°, and between 93° and 94° E

ACBERPOOR (*Acbarpura*)—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, thirty-six miles S.E from Fyzabad. Lat 26° 26′ N., lon 82° 25′ E.

ACBERPOOR (*Acbarpura*)—A town in the Agra province, twenty-five miles W S W from Caunpoor Lat. 26° 23′ N, long 79° 52′ E.

ACESINES RIVER.—See CHINAUB

ACHEEN.

(*Achi*).—A petty state in the north-western extremity of the island of Sumatra, bordering on the country of the Pattas, but not extending inland above fifty miles to the south-east On the western coast, where its influence was formerly predominant, it now possesses no further than Baroos, and even there, and at the intermediate posts, the power of the Acheenese chief is little more than nominal In 1820 Tamiang was the reputed boundary on the eastern and Sinkel on the western coast of Sumatra.

The air is comparatively healthy, the country being more free from jungle and stagnant water than most other parts of Sumatra. The degree of insalubrity, however, attending localities in this climate, is known to alter so frequently, from inscrutable causes, that a person who has resided two or three years on a spot cannot pretend to form a judgment.

The soil is light and fertile, and produces abundance of rice, excellent vegetables, much cotton, and the finest tropical fruits. Cattle and other articles of provision, are plenty, and reasonable in price In this province are found almost all the animals enumerated in the general description of Sumatra, and elephants (probably imported ones) are here found domesticated.

Although no longer the great mart of eastern commodities, Acheen still carries on a considerable trade, both with European merchants and the natives of the coast of that quarter of India called Telinga, but which by the Malays is called Kling, and applied to the whole coast of Coromandel These supply it with salt, cotton piece goods, and receive in return, gold dust, raw silk of an inferior quality, betel-nut, patch leaf, pepper, sulphur, camphor, and benzoin In the Acheenese territories there is a considerable manufacture of a thick species of cotton cloth, and of striped and checked stuffs. They also weave rich and handsome silk pieces, but this fabric has latterly declined, owing to the failure of the breed of silk-worms, and also to the decay of industry among the inhabitants, who were formerly bold and expert navigators. Payments are commonly made in gold dust, but there is also a small thin adulterated gold coin, rudely stamped with Arabic characters, called mass. The crown revenues arise from export and import duties, which are generally levied on the goods in the first instance, and of course fluctuate considerably. Besides this source, the king, being the chief merchant, gains considerably by monopolies, managed by the shahbunder, or master attendant, under whose jurisdiction all commercial transactions are placed

The government is hereditary, and more or less arbitrary, in proportion to the talents of the reigning prince, who usually maintains a guard of 100 sepoys from the Coromandel coast. At the king's feet sits a woman, to whom he makes known his pleasure; by her it is communicated to an eunuch who sits next to her, and by him to an officer named Kajurang Goodang, who proclaims it aloud to

the assembly. Sultan Allah ud Deen, who reigned in 1784, when Capt. Forrest visited his court, had travelled, and had been a considerable time in the Mauritius, where he had been driven when proceeding on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Besides the Malay, he spoke the French and Portuguese, and understood the casting of cannon and bomb-shells. His vizier was a Turk from Constantinople.

The country is populous for a native state, but the number of inhabitants has never been satisfactorily ascertained. They are taller and stouter than the generality of Sumatrans; but they cannot be considered as a genuine people, being rather a mixture of Battas and Malays with Chulias, by whom, in all ages, their ports were frequented. In the city of Acheen their conduct depends much on the example of the reigning monarch, which is often narrow, extortionary, and oppressive. The language consists of a mixture of Malay and Batta with all the jargons used by the eastern Mahomedans, whether Hindostany, Arab-Tamul, or Moplay, to which last-mentioned people the Acheenese have a considerable resemblance; but in writing they use the Malay character. In religion they are strict Mahomedans, and the severity of their punishments is horrible; but, notwithstanding so much apparent discouragement, both from law and prejudice, all travellers agree in representing the Acheenese as one of the most dishonest and flagitious nations of the east, which character the history of their government tends strongly to corroborate.

The Acheenese territories were visited by the Portuguese in 1509, when Diego Lopez Siqueira cast anchor at Pedeer, a principal sea-port on this part of Sumatra. Even at this early stage of their acquaintance, hostilities between the two nations commenced, and continued, with little cessation, until the Portuguese lost Malacca in 1641. In the course of these wars it is difficult to determine which of the two is the more astonishing, the vigorous stand made by such a handful of men as the whole Portuguese force consisted of, or the prodigious resources and perseverance of the Acheenese monarchs.

About A.D. 1586 the consequence of the Acheen monarchy had attained its greatest height. Its friendship was courted by the most considerable eastern potentates, and no city in India enjoyed a more flourishing commerce. The customs of the port being moderate, it was crowded with merchants from all parts; and although the Portuguese and their ships were continually plundered, yet those belonging to every Asiatic power appear to have enjoyed perfect security in the prosecution of their traffic. With respect to the government, the nobles, or Orang Cayos, formed a powerful counterpoise to the authority of the king. They were rich, had numerous followers, and cannon planted at the gates of their houses.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century the Hollanders began to navigate the Indian seas, and in the year 1600 some of their ships arrived at Acheen, where they were nearly cut off by treachery. The first English ships, under Capt Lancaster, visited Acheen in 1602, and were received by the king with abundant respect and ceremony, usually proportioned by the Acheenese sovereigns to the number of vessels and apparent strength of their foreign guests.

In 1607, Peducka Siri, the reigning sultan, assumed the title of sovereign of Acheen, and of the countries of Aroo, Delhi, Johore, Paham, Queda, and Pera, on one side; and of Baroos, Passuman, Ticoa, Sileda, and Priaman, on the other. In his answer to a letter from King James, in 1613, he styles himself King of all Sumatra, a name and idea which, if they exist in the original, he must have learned from his European connexions. In that letter he expresses a strong desire that the King of England would send him out one of his countrywomen for a wife, and pro-

mised to make her eldest son king of all the pepper countries The French first visited Acheen under Commodore Beaulieu, in 1621

In the year 1640 the Dutch with twelve men of war, and the Sultan of Acheen with twenty-five gallies, appeared before Malacca, which they had for so many years harassed, and the following year it was wrested from the Portuguese, who had so long, and under such difficulties, maintained it. But, as if the opposition of the Portuguese power, which first occasioned the rise of Acheen, was also necessary to its continuance, the splendour and consequence of the kingdom from that period rapidly declined, and in proportion its history became obscure Through the subsequent weakness of the government, and the encroachments of the Dutch, the extent of its ancient dominion was much contracted.

The year 1641 was marked by the death of Sultan Peducka Siri, one of the most powerful and cruel sovereigns, who, leaving no male heirs, was peaceably succeeded by his queen, which commences a new era in the history of the state, as the succession continued until 1700 in the female line, the Acheenese being accustomed and reconciled to this species of government, which they found more lenient than that of their kings The last queen died in 1700, when a priest found means, by his intrigues, to acquire the uneasy sovereignty, which, during the whole of the eighteenth century, continued a hot-bed of intrigue, treachery, and sanguinary revolutions

In 1813 this principality was in a complete state of anarchy and dissolution, every port and village having been occupied by petty usurpers, who subsisted by piracy and smuggling In 1814, Capt Canning was sent from Bengal to investigate and adjust the existing differences, but was treated by Jowaher Allum (who died in 1823), the reigning sovereign, with the greatest contempt Soon afterwards this monarch (whose ancestor was, by Queen Elizabeth, designated a great and puissant prince) was compelled to abdicate the throne in favour of Syf ul Alum, the son of a shop-keeper at Prince of Wales' Island. In this condition matters remained until 1819, when the usurper was ordered to return to Prince of Wales' Island, and the deposed chief restored. In 1820 Mr. Sartorius was deputed to Acheen, which he found in the most wretched condition; the king's authority being reduced to a mere nullity, and having only nominal possession of one small spot within the limits of his reputed dominions A commercial treaty had been concluded and ratified, but in the distracted state of Acheen not the slightest good was likely to result, unless supported by military protection to the king, and a direct, active, and continued interference.—(*Marsden, Leyden, Forrest, Elmore, Gov. Phillips, Capt. Canning, Sartorius, &c*)

ACHEEN.—A town situated at the north-western extremity of Sumatra, the capital of a principality of the same name, lat 5° 35′ N, lon 95° 45′ E

This place stands on a river about a league from the sea, near the N W point of the island, where the shipping lies in a road, rendered secure by the shelter of several islands It is described as populous, containing about 8,000 houses, built of bamboos and rough timber, and raised on piles The sultan's palace is a rude piece of architecture, calculated to resist the attacks of external enemies, and for that purpose surrounded with a moat and strong walls Near the gate are several pieces of ordnance of an extraordinary size, of which some are Portuguese, but two in particular of English origin they were sent by King James the First to the reigning monarch of Acheen, and have still the founder's name and the date legible The diameter of the bore of one is eighteen inches, and the other twenty-two Their strength, however, does not at all correspond with their calibre, nor do they seem in other

respects of adequate dimensions. James, who abhorred bloodshed himself, was resolved that his present should not be the instrument of it in others.

The commerce of Acheen is now inconsiderable, and the king (when he has the power) the only merchant, as is usual in this quarter of the world. The chief exports are brimstone, betel-nut, rattans, benzoin, camphor, gold dust, pepper, and horses; the imports, opium, salt, piece goods, muslin, &c.—(*Marsden, Forrest, Elmore, &c.*)

ADAM'S PEAK (*named by the natives Samanalla*).—A lofty mountain in the interior of Ceylon, situated about fifty miles E.S.E from Columbo, and by barometrical observation about 6,152 feet high. Lat. 6° 47′ N., lon. 80° 32′ E.

In ascending the road follows the windings of the Caltura river, which, at the distance of two miles from Batugedera, receives the Magelli, two chains in breadth at the confluence. One portion of the ascent is over an enormous rock, into which four flights, consisting of 127 steps, have been cut. The apex of the mountain is a distinct rock, which stands in the middle of an enclosure about seven feet above the level ground. On its top is the impression of the foot of Buddha, stamped by that incarnation when he first visited Ceylon. To mortal eyes it appears a superficial hollow, five feet three and three-quarter inches long, by two feet five inches wide, having a margin of brass studded with a few gems of little value. There is nothing else on the summit worthy notice, but the view from thence is singularly magnificent. On the one side a vast extent of wooded hills like an ocean of forest is seen; while on the other only the tops of the hills are perceptible, rising over the fogs like a number of small islands covered with trees.

On the 18th April 1817, at six in the evening, the thermometer stood at 52°, and the barometer (a short one) at 23° 70′; next day at seven in the morning, the first stood at 58°, and the last at 23° 75′. About midnight the thermometer stood at 51°, and never fell lower, the air being agitated by a gentle wind from the N.N.E. The name of Adam's Peak was probably first applied by the Mahommedans, who assert that Adam here lamented his expulsion from Paradise, standing on one foot until he was pardoned.—(*J. Davy, &c.*)

ADANAD (*Adinatha*).—A town in the province of Malabar, division of Shirnada, celebrated as the throne of the Alvangheri Tamburacul, or chief of the Namburies, who are the Brahmins of Malabar.

These Namburies will neither eat nor drink with the Brahmins of other countries; but, like other Brahmins, they marry and live with their wives, of whom they take as many as they are able to support. A Namburie's children are always considered as his heirs, but in order to prevent their losing dignity by becoming too numerous, the younger sons of a Namburie family seldom marry. They live with their eldest brothers, and assist the wives of the Rajas and other Nairs of distinction to keep up their families. Many Namburies have lost caste by committing murder, or by having eaten forbidden things, and in such cases their children generally become Mahomedans.

In the division of Shirnada, the low hills occupy a very large proportion of the surface, the soil in most of them consists of a kind of indurated clay, which on exposure to the air becomes as hard as a brick. The continuance of the rain, however, in this neighbourhood, is sufficient to ensure plenty of water for any crop that does not require more than four months to come to maturity.

ADJYGHUR (*the impregnable fortress*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated at nearly equal distances from Callinjer and Pannah, lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E. The fortress consists of a wall of loose stones, raised round the edge of a very high

and steep hill. The table land within the fort is a mile in length, by 700 or 800 yards average breadth, and is inaccessible, except by the paths made to the different gates; which are defended by walls and gates, one behind the other, and all of difficult ascent. Within the fort are three reservoirs of water cut in the solid rock, and the ruins of three Hindoo temples.

In 1809 it was besieged by a British detachment, and after a stout resistance, in which considerable loss was experienced by the assailants, was evacuated by the garrison. When the family of Lutchman Dowab, the refractory zemindar of Adjyghur, was ordered to be removed, an old man, his father-in-law, was sent into the women's apartments to prepare the females for their removal, he not returning after some time had elapsed, the house was entered by the roof, when it was found he had cut the throats of all the women and children, eight in number, and afterwards his own. The deed must have been perpetrated entirely with the consent and assistance of the females, as the persons stationed at the door never heard the slightest cries while the catastrophe was performing.—(11 *Reg. &c.*)

ADONI (*Adavani*).—A district in the Balaghaut ceded territories, bounded on the north by the Toombudra, and intersected by the Hoggry or Vadavati river. The chief towns are Adoni, Chagee, and Gooroor. In 1800, this district, along with the tract of country situated to the south of the Toombudra and Krishna rivers, was ceded to the British government by the Nizam, and on subsequent arrangements taking place was attached to the Bellary collectorship.

ADONI.—The capital of the above division, situated in lat. 15° 35′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E., thirty-eight miles N. by E. from Bellary. This town was taken in 1568 by Ali Adil Shah of Bejapoor, at which period it stood on the top of a high hill, and contained within its walls many tanks and fountains of pure water, with numerous princely structures. The Rajas of Bijanagur, to whom it previously belonged, considered it impregnable, and an asylum for their families in desperate emergencies: but they lost it, with their empire, after the great battle fought with the Deccany Mahommedans in 1564. For a short interval during the eighteenth century it was the capital of a small independent Patan principality, and subsequently became the jaghire and residence of Bazalet Jung, brother to the late Nizam Ali. In 1787 it was besieged, taken, and destroyed by Tippoo, and in 1800, along with the district, was ceded to Britain by the Nizam. It is now a town of very little importance, and contains but a scanty population.

Travelling distance from Seringapatam 243 miles, from Madras 310; from Hyderabad 175, and from Calcutta 1,030 miles.—(*Ferishta, 12th Register, 5th Report, Rennel, &c.*)

ADRIAMPATAM.—A small town on the sea-coast of Tanjore, twenty-seven miles S. by E. from the city of Tanjore. Lat. 10° 19′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E.

AENG.—A British post in the province of Arracan, situated on the route from Shembewgewn, on the Irawady, to Amherst harbour in Arracan; lat 19° 55′ N., lon 93° 45′ E., sixty-six miles S E from Arracan town. The Aeng road was completed by the late Burmese sovereign Minderajee Praw, and does much credit to his energy, and to the skill of his engineers. It was begun in 1816, and finished gradually. This communication, however, is closed by the monsoon between May and January. In April 1826, when passed through by a battalion of sepoys returned from Ava, Aeng and its vicinity contained few inhabitants, but had previously been the emporium of the inland traffic between the two countries. The tide flows past it, but in April there is not sufficient

water for boats to within six miles of the wharf. A British force from hence might reach the Irawady in ten days, and the capital of Ava in a month, but the road is not practicable for heavy artillery.—(*Trant, &c.*)

AFGHANISTAN.

(*Afghani-st'han.*)—This extensive country is bounded on the north by the Hindoo Cosh mountains, and the Paropamisan range; the Indus is its boundary, as far south as lat. 32° 20′ N. The plain on the right bank of the Indus is inhabited by Baloochies; but the chain of the Soliman mountains, with its subordinate ranges, and the country immediately at their base, belong to the Afghans. The hills which bound Sewistan on the north form the southern limit of the Afghan territory. Immediately to the north of these hills the Afghan country does not extend so far west as to reach the table-land of Kelat, but afterwards stretches past it on the north, and reaches to the desert which is its north-western boundary.

These countries are extremely variable in their level, soil, climate, and productions. The whole of Afghanistan west of the Soliman ridge is a table-land, lying higher than most of the neighbouring provinces. The Hindoo Cosh chain, which forms the northern boundary of Afghanistan, looks down on Bulk; on the east it is in proportion elevated above the still lower plain of the Indus. On the south it overlooks Sewistan; the deep valley of Bolaun, on the S.W., runs between it and Baloochistan. On the west it slopes gradually to the desert, and on the north-west, the appearance of elevation is lost as it approaches the Paropamisan mountains. The Afghans have no general name for the country they inhabit, but that of Afghanistan, which was probably first applied by the Persians, is frequently used in books, and is not unknown to the natives of the country thus designated. The section of the country to the west of the parallel of Makloor, lon. 68° 30′ E., is comprehended in the extensive province of Khorasan.

For so great a surface of country, Afghanistan possesses but few large rivers; indeed, except the Indus, there is no river in this region that is not fordable throughout its course during the greater part of the year, the others more resembling large torrents, which occasionally rush down with a heavy flood, and afterwards leave their hollow bed empty. Their volume is also much reduced by the number of small channels cut for the purposes of irrigation, by which a large stream is sometimes entirely drawn off before it reaches any other river; and it may be remarked of the rivers of this region, that their bulk at their mouths is never equal to the expectations they raise when seen emerging from the mountains. The Indus alone is always navigable, although so little use is made of its channel. The Cabul river, the Cashgar, the Koorum and the Gomul, flow towards the east; those running to the west are the Helmund or Etymandu, the Urghunaub, the Khooshrood, the Furrahrood, and the Lora. There is only one small lake, situated to the S.W. of Ghizni.

In Afghanistan the south-west monsoon is felt with much less violence than in India, being exhausted at no great distance from the sea, and not at all perceptible at Candahar. A remarkable exception, however, to this rule is observed in the north-eastern quarter of Afghanistan, which although much more remote from the sea than Candahar, is subject to the monsoon, which it receives from the east. The countries under the Hindoo Cosh, such as Puckely, Beneer, and Sewad, have all a share of the monsoon rains, which diminish as they go west, and at Sewad are reduced to a month of clouds, with occasional showers, about the conclusion of July and beginning of August. During this short period the monsoon appears in some clouds and showers at Peshawer and in the Bungish and Khuttak countries. It is still

less felt in the valley of the Cabul river, where it does not extend beyond Lugman; but in Bajour and Punjcora, under the southern projection of the Hindoo Cosh, in part of the Caffristan, situated on the top of that promontory, and in Teera, near the Tuhkte Soliman, the south-west monsoon is heavy, and forms the principal rains of the year.

The climate of Afghanistan varies extremely in different parts of the country, partly owing to the difference of latitude, but much more to the greater or less elevation of the various provinces. The direction of the winds also is of material influence, some blow over ridges of snowy mountains, others are heated in summer and rendered cold in winter by their passage over deserts; some districts are refreshed in summer by breezes from moister countries, while others are so enclosed by hills as to be inaccessible to any wind. The extremes of heat and cold are also experienced, for while in the sultry valley of Peshawer the thermometer rises to 113° Fahrenheit, the lofty peaks of the Hindoo Cosh within sight remain covered with never-melting snow. The prevailing wind through Afghanistan is from the west; and it is remarked by the natives, that westerly winds are cold, while easterly are hot. The general character of the climate is decidedly dry, being little subject to rain, clouds, or fogs. The annual heat, on an average, is greater than that of England, but less than that of India; while the difference of temperature between winter and summer, and even between day and night, is greater than in either of these countries. If an inference may be drawn from the size, strength, and activity of the inhabitants, the territory may be pronounced favourable to the human constitution, and many districts are remarkable for their salubrity.

To the traveller the Afghan country presents wild unfrequented deserts, and mountains covered with perennial snow. Even among the cultivated districts he will discover a wild assemblage of hills and wastes without enclosures, unembellished by trees, and destitute of navigable canals, public roads, and all the elaborate productions of human civilization, while the towns will be found few and remote from each other. On the other hand, he would be struck with the population and fertility of certain plains and vallies, where he would discover the productions of Europe mingled with those of the Torrid Zone, and the land improved with the utmost industry. In other parts the inhabitants would be found following their flocks, dwelling in tents, or stationary in villages, composed of mud-built walls with terraced roofs.

In Afghanistan there are five classes of cultivators, *viz.* first, proprietors who cultivate their own lands, second, tenants who hire it for a money rent, or for a fixed proportion of the produce; third, buzgurs, who are the same as the métayers in France, fourth, hired labourers, fifth, vassals, who till their lord's lands without wages. The land, on the whole, is more equally divided than in most countries, Afghanistan containing a great number of landed proprietors The common lease is one and two years, the best five; the value of land is estimated at about twelve years' purchase. In most parts of this territory there are two harvests in the year, one of which is sown the end of autumn and reaped in summer; the other is sown the end of spring and reaped in autumn. Wheat is the food of the people in the greatest proportion of the country, the barley raised being commonly given to horses; rice is also generally found, but is most abundant in Sewad, best at Peshawer, and is almost the only food of the inhabitants of Cashmere. Garden vegetables of all sorts are plentiful and excellent, but most of the sugar is brought from Hindostan; cotton, with a few exceptions, is confined to the hot districts; little, however, is manufactured, a great proportion of the cotton cloth used being imported

from India. The palma christi, or castor-oil plant, is common, and supplies a great part of the oil used; madder abounds in the cold climates of the west, where also the assafœtida plant is found wild. Vast quantities of this last-mentioned drug are exported to India, where it forms a favourite ingredient in the cookery of both Hindoos and Mahomedans. Tobacco is produced in most parts of Afghanistan.

The grain is converted into flour by windmills, watermills, or handmills, the first being the most common in the west, where a steady wind can be relied on for at least four months of the year. There are many ruins of old windmills as far east as Cabul and Ghizni, the sails of which appear to have been enclosed within the building, the wind having access by an opening; the wheel of the watermill is horizontal. Horses are employed to draw the plough in Turkistan and the Eimauk country, but no where else in Afghanistan; nor are they employed for this purpose either in Hindostan or Persia, that task in all the three being usually assigned to oxen and buffaloes, although in particular parts of the first camels and asses are also used. A considerable number of horses are reared in the Afghan dominions; those from Herat are reckoned particularly good, some of them having the figure of an Arab, with superior size. A good breed of the Indian sort, named tazi, is found in Bunnoo and Damaun, and excellent horses of the same description are bred between the Hydaspes and Indus; but excepting those from the province of Bulk, which are excellent, the horses from the Afghan territories have not a very good character.

Camels are the animals most employed for carriage; the dromedary is found in all the plain country, especially in the dry and sandy parts, and is the tall, long-legged animal common to India. The Bactrian camel is more rare, and is a third lower than the other, but very stout; he is covered with black shaggy hair, and has two distinct humps, instead of one bunch like the dromedary. The best oxen are imported from the Rajpoot country. The grand stock of the pastoral tribes is sheep, of the species having tails a foot broad, almost entirely composed of fat. Various breeds of goats, some with long twisted horns, are common among the mountains. The dogs of Afghanistan are excellent, particularly the greyhounds and pointers; the cats are of the long-haired sort, known in Europe by the name of Persian cats. There are three sorts of eagles, and many kinds of hawks trained to the chase; the chirk species are trained to strike the antelope, and fasten on its head until the greyhounds come up. Among the other birds, herons, cranes, storks, wild ducks, geese, partridges, pigeons, crows, and sparrows, are common; cuckoos rare, and magpies numerous, while peacocks are unknown. The snakes and scorpions of this country are large; there are no alligators; fish are scarce, and turtles and tortoises plenty. Flights of locusts are not of frequent occurrence; bees are common; but musquitoes, except in the hot tracts, give but little annoyance. Among the wild animals, lions are said to be found in the hilly country about the city of Cabul, but this appears improbable; tigers are principally seen in the low country along the Indus; wolves, hyænas, foxes, and hares are common every where. Bears are found among the woody mountains, but they seldom quit their recesses except when allured by a field of sugar cane; there are two kinds, one the common black bear of India, and the other of a dirty white or yellow colour. Wild boars are rare; but a great variety of deer, including the elk, abound among the mountains. Wild sheep and wild goats are common, besides which there are porcupines, hedgehogs, mangooses, ferrets, wild dogs, and monkeys. Elephants are brought from Hindostan, neither that animal nor the rhinoceros being found in a wild state.

Many European trees are indige-

nous to Afghanistan, where most of the finest European fruits grow wild. The commonest trees are the large coned fir, with seeds resembling pistaccio nuts; oaks, cedars, a gigantic species of cypress, the walnut, pistaccio and the olive, mulberry, tamarisk. English flowers, such as jessamines, poppies, narcissuses, tuberoses, hyacinths, &c. are raised in the gardens. The country not having been explored, little is known respecting its mineral riches. Gold is said to be found in some of the streams that flow from the Hindoo Cosh mountains; silver in Caffristan, rubies in Badukshan, and cliffs containing lapis lazuli are supposed to overhang the Cashgur river; lead, iron, and antimony are procured in different tracts; sulphur, rock salt, from the salt range of mountains; saltpetre every where; alum is extracted from the clay at Calabaugh, and orpiment is procured from Bulk and the Hazareh countries.

Afghanistan being an inland country, destitute of navigable rivers and roads fit for wheel carriages, commerce is carried with camels in the level country, and with horses and ponies among the mountains. Caravans go to Chinese Turkistan from Cashmere and Peshawer, from Candahar and Herat to Persia, but the trade to Hindostan is more divided. That of the Punjab and the north comes to Peshawer, while that which crosses the desert of Rajpootana and the countries still further south comes to Shekarpoor, Bahawulpoor, and Mooltan. The trade by sea arrives at Corachie, and is thence transported to Shekarpoor and Candahar. The chief commercial intercourse is with India, Persia, and Turkistan (both independent and Chinese), but the first is by far the most considerable. The exports to India consist principally of horses, furs, shawls, madder, assafœtida, tobacco, almonds, pistaccio nuts, walnuts, hazel-nuts, and fruits both fresh and dried. The imports are coarse cotton cloths, muslins, silken cloths and brocades, indigo in large quantities, ivory, chalk, bamboos, wax, tin, sandal-wood, and nearly all the sugar used in the country. Spices are largely imported from Bombay and the Malabar coast to Corachie; cowries also come by this route, through which horses are exported. The horse trade is one of considerable importance A great number of horses are annually sold in the north of India, under the name of Cabul horses, and in the west under that of Candahar horses; but almost the whole of these come from Turkistan. No horses are bred at Cabul, except by men of property for their own use, nor are the horses about Candahar exported. Some fine horses from the neighbourhood of Herat are carried to other countries, but few or none to India. A considerable number of horses are exported from Baloochistan, as are also some of the fine breed found on both sides of the Indus, in the county north of the salt range. The great breeding country in the Afghan dominions is Balk, from which quarter, and from the Turkoman country, lower down the Oxus river, a great proportion of the horses exported are brought. *There are two sorts of horses mostly dealt in, one rather small but very stout; the other much larger, and more valued on that account, although not near so serviceable, except for war, when, owing to the Asiatic mode of fighting, size is of importance* The first are called *Toorkies* or *Uzbekies*, the second *Turkomanies*. The great marts are Balk and Bokhara, where Toorkies sell for from £5 to £20, and Turkomanies from £20 to £100 each. Of late years the exportation to India has been rapidly decreasing, owing to the extension of the British possessions, where small bodies of disciplined infantry have been substituted for large bodies of horse; and in proportion as the circle of their depredations has been contracted, the native armies have been also modified and diminished by a greater admixture of infantry.

The origin of the term Afghan has

never been satisfactorily traced, but it is probably of modern date, being known to the Afghan nation only through the medium of the Persian. The name by which they designate themselves is Pooshtoon, in the plural Pooshtanel., sometimes pronounced Pooktauneh, whence possibly the word Patan, by which the Afghans are known in India, may be derived. By the Arabians they are called Solimanee. They have no general name for their country, but sometimes apply the Persian one of Afghanist'han. The name most usually applied to the whole country is Khorassan, which is obviously incorrect. The Afghans describe themselves as having originally sprung in four divisions, from the four sons of Kyse Abouresheed, named Serrabun, Ghoorghoosht, Betnee, and Kurleh, from whom originate the innumerable tribes, branches, and subdivisions which at present exist. The term Ooloos is applied either to a whole tribe or to an independent branch, the import of the word meaning a sort of clannish commonwealth. Khail means a band or assemblage, and Zei means sons. Throughout all the tribes, the clannish attachment of the Afghans, unlike that of the Scottish highlanders, is rather to the community than to the chief, who has but little power, and it is but rarely that the personal interests of its khan or chief will influence a tribe to any action inconsistent with its own interest or honour.

The general law of the empire is that of Mahomed, but their peculiar code is the Pooshtoon-Wallee, or peculiar usages of the Afghans, which authorizes the law of retaliation. Slaves are common in Afghanistan, mostly home-born, the rest imported. Abyssinians and negroes are sometimes brought from Arabia; the Baloochies sell Persians and other prisoners, and many Caffries are purchased or made prisoners. The Caffrey prisoners are generally females, and much sought after on account of their beauty. The Afghan men are of robust make, generally lean, but strong and muscular, with high noses and cheek bones and long faces. Their hair and beards are generally black, sometimes brown, but rarely red. The western Afghans are stouter than those of the east, and some are of surprising strength and stature, but in the aggregate not so tall as the British nations. Their manners are frank and open, but entirely free from the affectation of military pride and ferocity, so disgusting among the Patans of India. By the Persians the Afghans are accused of barbarism and stupidity, because they want the subtlety and mendacity of the former, and are remarkable among eastern nations for their veracity. Their ruling passion is the love of gain, and hoarding a favourite system with all classes, the influence of money being nearly unbounded. They are proud of their descent, and great supporters of genealogies. To their immediate dependents they are kind, but the reverse to those who are under them, without any personal connexion, on which account the more remote provinces which they have subdued, such as Cashmere, suffer greatly from their rapacity. Their vices are those of revenge, envy, avarice, rapacity, and obstinacy, but on the other hand they are fond of independence, faithful to each other, kind to their immediate dependents, hospitable, brave, hardy, frugal, laborious, prudent, and are on the whole, at least in their native country, much less debauched, voluptuous, and dishonest, than their neighbours the Hindostanees and Persians.

The above favourable character, however, must in a great degree be restricted to the inhabitants of the country, for the greater part of the sedentary town population are not Afghans. No genuine Afghan ever keeps a shop, or exercises any handicraft trade, these vocations being mostly occupied by Tajiks (whose language is Persian) and Hindikies, a people of Indian origin. The only Afghans who reside in great towns are great men and their followers,

soldiers, moollahs, a few who follow commerce, and some of the very poorest who work as labourers. The prohibition in the Koran against true believers taking interest for money, devolves most of the banking business on the Hindoos, for which, from their cautious and penurious habits, they are admirably suited. The Tajiks of Afghanistan are every where remarkable for their use of fixed habitations, and their disposition to agriculture, and other stationary occupations. They compose the principal part of the population round Cabul, Candahar, Ghizni, Herat, and Balk, but there are few in the wild parts of the country. The whole number in the Cabul dominions has been estimated at about 1,500,000 persons. The Hindikies are more numerous than the Tajiks, and all of Indian descent; their language is a kind of Hindostany, resembling the Punjaub dialect. Brahminical Hindoos are found all over Cabul, especially in the towns, where they carry on the trade of brokers, merchants, bankers, goldsmiths, and grain sellers. They are almost all of the Khetri (military) tribe, yet none follow the martial profession, and they are by no means strict in their adherence to the Brahminical doctrines of purity and impurity.

The food of the common people is leavened bread, rice, flesh, vegetables, sometimes cheese, and afterwards dried curds. Provisions are very cheap, and fruit so abundant, that in the city of Cabul grapes are dear when they sell for more than one farthing per pound. Nuts of all sorts are in profusion; vegetables are low-priced, as are also coriander seeds, turmeric, and ginger. In the Cohistan or hilly country, the chief subsistence of the people is derived from their numerous plantations of mulberry trees, the fruit of which is dried in the sun, then ground to flour, and afterwards made into bread. It has been calculated that the produce of an acre of mulberries will support a greater number of persons than one under regular tillage.

The Afghan nation being composed of the aggregate of many different tribes, cannot be properly described without particularly referring to each distinct body; but these divisions are so minute and extended that it is impossible even to enumerate them, and in point of strength and population, each tribe fluctuates almost annually. In 1809, those of the most importance were the

Durranies (formerly the Abdallies),
Ghiljies,
Yusephzeis,
Deggauns,
Kizzlebashes (of Persian origin),
Turkolanies, Khyberies, Bungish, Otman khail, Khuttuks, Delazauks, } Durranies,
Momunds,
Vizieries,
Wurducks,
Caukers, and
Naussers.

The Hazarehs and Eimauks, who now inhabit what is supposed to have been the original Afghan country, differ entirely from that nation in appearance, language and manners, but bear a strong resemblance to the Toorky tribes in their neighbourhood. The king is the natural head of the Durranies, the strongest, bravest, and most civilized tribe; but he is obliged to pay great attention to the wishes of the different clans that compose it. The tribes that inhabit the north-eastern quarter, enclosed between the Hindoo Cosh mountains and the Indus, the salt range and the range of Soliman, are comprehended under the general name of Ber Durranies, first given them by Ahmed Shah. They are mostly agricultural, but subdivided into numerous little societies. The Durranies had formerly the name of Abdallies, until it was changed to Durranies by Ahmed Shah, in consequence of the dream of a famous saint at Chamkunee, and upon this event he assumed the title of Shah Dooree Dooraun. Of all the clans into which this tribe is par-

titioned, the Populzei is the most eminent, and of this clan the Suddozei fills the throne, and is held peculiarly sacred.

The upper corner of Afghanistan, north of the Cabul river, and west of the Indus, is occupied by the Yusephzei tribe, who also inhabit the country among the hills named Beneer, Sewad, and Punjcora; some of this tribe extend to the Indus.—They have possessed the countries they now inhabit 300 years, but came originally from the west about Gairah and Nooshky. The territory was then possessed by the Delazauks, who were gradually expelled or exterminated by the Yusephzeis. At present the latter are a very numerous tribe, separated into many little communities, chiefly under an apparently democratic constitution, and notwithstanding their turbulence and internal discord, their country is well cultivated, and their villages and water-courses in excellent condition. A renowned saint of their own tribe is said to have left them a blessing and a curse, that "they should always be free but never united." In consequence of their interminable feuds, there is scarcely a man of any note, who is not constantly on the watch for his life. In every village men are seen clad in armour, and others are surrounded by hired soldiers. Each injury produces fresh retaliations, hence ambuscades, sudden attacks in the streets, murder in their houses, with the consequent distrust, alarm, and confusion. It is not possible to enumerate all the little republics of the Yusephzeis independent of each other. The whole population has been estimated at 700,000 persons, but more than half of these are the mere peasantry (here named Fakeers) who labour for the Yusephzeis. These Fakeers have the liberty of removing from the lands of one master to those of another, and even to a distinct community, which privilege is their main protection against oppression.

The crown of Cabul is hereditary in that branch of the Suddozei family which is descended from Ahmed Shah Abdalli, but there is no fixed rule for its descending to the eldest son. The whole of the royal family, except those especially favoured by the reigning sovereign, are imprisoned in the upper citadel of Cabul city, where they are well treated but strictly confined. The king's title is Shahy Dooree Dooraun. He has the exclusive privilege of coining, and is prayed for in the khootbeh, a part of the religious service of the Mahomedans. He has the right of making peace and declaring war, but cannot cede any portion of the territory occupied by the Afghan tribes, who have generally shewn no desire for western conquests; and it was a death-bed injunction of Ahmed Shah to avoid attacking the Uzbeks, whom he designated "a hive without honey." Indeed the majority of the Afghan tribes meddle little with external politics, and possess but scanty information regarding the neighbouring states, having no news-writers as in Hindostan, and but few ambassadors. The general administration is conducted by the King with the assistance of the Great Vizier, who ought to be selected from the clan of Baumzei. Next to the Vizier are the head secretary (the Moonshee Bashi), the superintendent of the intelligence department (Harcarah Bashi), and the commandant of punishments or public executioner (Nasukher Bashi). The station of Arz Beggee was hereditary in the family of Akram Khan. The duty of this functionary is to repeat in an audible voice to the king, any thing that is said by his subjects when admitted to the presence, and his office it may be supposed is of considerable importance.

The whole kingdom in 1809 was subdivided into twenty-seven provinces, eighteen of which had each a separate governor or hakim, who collected the revenue and commanded the militia, and a surdar or general who commanded the regulars, but sometimes both of these offices were united. The eighteen provinces thus administered were Herat, Furrah,

Candahar, Ghizni, Cabul, Bamian, Ghoorebund, Jellalabad, Laghman, Peshawer, Dera Ismael Khan, Dera Ghazi Khan, Shekarpoor, Sewee, Sinde, Cashmere, Chuch Hazareh, Leia and Mooltan, some of which at present are totally separated from the Afghan dominions, and others under but little control. In settled times the revenue of Cabul was formerly reckoned at near three millions per annum, but the real revenue seldom exceeded two millions, and of this a large proportion was assigned away in military jaghire.

In the cities justice is administered by the cauzies, the mufti, the ameeni mekemeh, and the darogah of the adawlut. In the country the land holders were answerable for the police, which in most parts is very bad The established army (before the existing anarchy) consisted of Durrannies, Gholaum Shahs, besides which there was a sort of militia named Eeljauree The conduct of the Durranies (the ruling tribe) in their wars, conveys a very mean idea of their military character. Their armies were always very small, seldom exceeding ten thousand men of a side, and these ill paid and disobedient The victory was usually decided by some person of consequence going over to the enemy, on which the greater part of the army dispersed, or followed his example. Even when the battle was decided by the sword there was little bloodshed, and that chiefly among the great khans who were interested in the result, the common soldiers shewing much indifference as to the issue.

The language of the Afghans is named the Pushtoo; but its origin is unknown, as a large portion of the words cannot be traced to any of the ancient languages, although Sir William Jones considered it to be a dialect of the scriptural Chaldaic. For writing they use the Persian alphabet, and generally the Nush character; but as they have some sounds not expressible by any Persian letter, they denote these by adding a distinctive mark or point to the Persian letter, which approaches nearest in sound. In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Pushtoo, the missionaries could scarcely trace four words to the Sanscrit, although half of them were quite familiar as being current in the Hindostany. It is consequently evident that the languages derived from the Sanscrit end in the west at Afghanistan, which idea is confirmed by the Baloochy dialect to the south of that region. The Pushtoo, though rough, is a manly language, and not unpleasing to an ear accustomed to the oriental tongues. None of the famous authors in this dialect are more than one century and a half old, and there are probably no books in the language more than twice that antiquity, their literature being mostly of Persian origin. Their pure authors are chiefly writers on theology and law; but they have also several histories of particular periods of their own transactions The books written in Pushtoo, however, are not to be relied on as giving any standard of the national learning, Persian being still the language in which all scientific works are composed.

The manners of the Afghan tribes differ according as their habits are stationary or migratory. The dwellers in tents are chiefly found in the west, much the larger portion of the eastern Afghans living in houses, and circumstances render it probable that all over the empire the erratic tribes are diminishing, no voluntary migration of a tribe from one distant station to another having taken place for above a century. The commonest houses are built of brick, one story high, and roofed, either with terraces or low cupolas, supported by beams. There are neither wheeled carriages nor palanquins in the country, both sexes travelling on horses and camels. One of the most distinguished characteristics of the Afghans is their hospitality, for which they are justly famous, it being considered a point of national honour. The greatest affront an Afghan can receive is to have his guest carried off. They are

remarkable for their rapacity and predatory habits, and will next day, if they meet him at a distance, plunder the individual they have before hospitably entertained. They acquire their wives by purchase, and among them, as among the ancient Jews, it is thought incumbent on the brother of the deceased to marry his widow.

With respect to religion, the Afghans are all of the Sooni sect of Mahomedans, which acknowleges the three first Caliphs as the lawful successors of Mahomed, and opposed to the Shiahs, who reject the three first Caliphs as usurpers of the right of Ali, the nephew of the prophet, and fourth of his successors. A bitter enmity between these two sects is the consequence; and the unlearned portion of the Afghans certainly consider a Shiah as more of an infidel than a Hindoo, yet all the numerous Persians in the country are Shiahs, and many of them hold high offices in the state and household. Another remarkable sect in Afghanistan is that of the Sophies, which ought perhaps to be considered rather as a sect of mystified philosophers, than mere sectarians in religion. This class gains ground among the higher orders, and such of the Moullahs as are dabblers in general literature, to whose taste its mysteries and obscure sublimity is admirably suited. Another sect, named the Zukkies from Moullah Zukki, its first patron, hold doctrines hostile to all revelation and the belief of a future state, and are said practically to illustrate their doctrines by the depravity of their lives. The Roushunea sect was very prevalent in the sixteenth century, but is now nearly extinct. It was founded in the reign of the emperor Acber, by Bajazet Ansari, named by his enemies, the apostle of darkness, in derision to the title of Peeree Roushun, the apostle of light, which he had assumed.

Like many other eastern nations, the Afghans hold their burial-grounds in high veneration, naming them the cities of the dead. These they people with the ghosts of the departed, each sitting at the head of his own grave, although invisible to mortal eyes. They also pry into futurity by astrological and geomantic calculations, and by all kinds of divination and sortilege. The most approved modes, however, of discovering the arrangements of providence, are either by examining the blade-bone of a sheep, held up to the light, or by opening at random the Koran or the Poems of Hafiz.

The Afghans assert that they are descended from Afghan, the son of Irmia or Birkia, the son of Saul, king of Israel. The early Mahomedan chronicles mention Rajas of Cabul; but this proves no fact, as the same writers call the Hindoos Guebres, and apply the term rajah without sufficient discrimination. The first substantial tradition of the Afghans begins in A.D. 997, when Sebuctaghi, a Tartar officer, conquered Afghanistan, and made Ghizni its capital. His son, Mahmood, greatly extended the limits of the empire, and the dynasty lasted until 1159, from which period, until the invasion of Tamerlane, the Afghan history is involved in obscurity. In 1506, the emperor Baber seized on Cabul and Ghizni, prior to his invasion of Hindoostan. In 1720, the Afghans conquered Persia, and took Ispahan; but in 1737, their own country was completely subjugated by Nadir Shah. In 1747, Ahmed Shah ab dalli, the founder of the Durrany dynasty, was crowned at Candahar; in 1773 he was succeeded by his son Timour Shah, who died in 1793. Zemaun Shah reigned until 1800, when he was dethroned by his brother Mahmood, who, in 1803, was expelled by his brother Shuja, who was in his turn expelled by Mahmood in 1809, and sought refuge at Luddeaneh, where he remained in 1817, with a pension of 50,000 rupees per annum; but in 1818, he became restless, and quitted his asylum in hopes of regaining the uneasy crown. Meantime Runjeet Singh, the Seik chief of Lahore, availing himself of the existing con-

fusion, in 1819-20, conquered Peshawer, the modern Afghan capital, and the romantic valley of Cashmere. In 1821, Shah Shuja returned from the Karpoor to Luddeaneh, through Sinde, Jesselmere, and Joudpoor, after failing in attempt to recover his throne by the aid of the Ameers of Sinde. Great lenity was shewn him, and his pension restored, although he had offered to mortgage it to the Rajah of Noorpoor, to raise funds for his adventurous expedition. At the same time a pension was settled on his blind brother, Zemaun Shah, at one period the sovereign of Afghanisthan, and the terror of north-western India. In 1826, the rival kings, Mahmood and Shuja, were equally fugitives; the first with his son Camran at Herat; the last within the British territories. The Cabul country was then partitioned among the sons of Futteh Khan, always at variance, and Yar Mahomed Khan was actual ruler of Peshawer, probably under the protection of Runjeet Singh, the tide of conquest having rolled back for the first time from east to west.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

AFZULGHUR.—A town and stout ghurry in the province of Oude, situated in lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

AGHA DEEP (*Agha-dwipa*). — A small town in the province of Bengal, where there is a celebrated image of Krishna, much venerated by the Hindoos.

PROVINCE OF AGRA.

This large division of Hindostan proper is situated principally between the 25th and 28th degrees of N. lat On the north it is bounded by the province of Delhi, on the south by that of Malwa, on the east are the provinces of Oude and Allahabad, and on the west that of Ajmeer. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles by 180, the average breadth. The principal modern geographical and political subdivisons are the following:

1. Agra district.
2. The Doab.
3. The district of Etaweh.
4. The Furruckabad district.
5. Calpee, Gohud, and Gualior.
6. The Bhurtpoor territories.
7. Alvar and Macherry.
8. The Alighur district.

The surface of this province, to the north-east of the Jumna, is in general flat and open, and rather bare of trees; but to the south of the Chumbul, and also towards the western frontier, it becomes more hilly and jungly. The climate, for the greater part of the year, is temperate, and during the winter cool during the nights; but while the hot winds prevail, as in other regions subject to their influence, the heat is intense, and the climate unhealthy, especially in the jungly quarter; but, fortunately, their continuance is not of very long duration. The chief rivers of the province are the Ganges, the Jumna, and the Chumbul, besides many smaller streams, such as the Sinde and Kohary; but, upon the whole, the country is but indifferently supplied with water, and depends much on the periodical rains. To the north of the Chumbul, and on the western frontier, during the dry season, except in the immediate vicinity of the large rivers, which flow with a perpetual current, water for agricultural purposes is procured from wells. A great proportion of the cultivation is consequently restricted to such crops as do not, like rice, require a redundant supply of moisture.

Various streams have their sources in the north-western hills, and during the rains flow with a considerable volume; but even then they do not reach the Jumna. Chumbul, or any large depôt of water, being arrested during their progress; either absorbed by the thirsty soil, or abstracted by the husbandmen for the purposes of agriculture. The soil of this province is particularly well adapted for the cultivation of indigo

cotton, and sugar, which might be raised in any quantity, and the production of which, in the British territories, is annually fast increasing. In those subject to the native chiefs, agriculture still meets with impediments, but nevertheless, during the long tranquillity they have been compelled to enjoy, has made considerable advances. The Agra province contains no peculiar mineral productions, and the animals are such as are usually found in other quarters of Hindostan; but the horses are reckoned much superior to those reared further east, with the exception of those bred in the government studs at Tirhoot and Ghazipoor. While describing the local subdivisions into which the province is partitioned, further particulars of this nature will be noticed

The principal article manufactured in the Agra province is coarse cotton cloth, which was once largely exported, but has latterly much declined. The Bengal and Bahar provinces receive annually an importation of raw cotton, from the country south of the Chumbul, by the route of Kalpee; but a considerable portion of it is the growth of Malwa, and the former Maharatta territories to the south-east of Agra. The Doab, or territory included between the Ganges and Jumna, which may be termed the garden of the province, exports indigo, sugar, and cotton. The country to the north-west of Agra, under the Rajas of Macherry, Bhurtpoor, and other native chiefs, although ill supplied with water, has latterly much improved both in industry and cultivation. Upon the whole, the province is but thinly populated, when compared with Bengal, Bahar, Tanjore, and the more flourishing of the British districts, and does not, probably, in all its dimensions, contain more than eight millions of inhabitants, of which much the larger portion reside within the jurisdiction of the British magistrates.

At present the chief native potentates within the limits of the province are the Rajahs of Macherry and Bhurtpoor; but, besides these, it contains petty independent chiefs, all under the protection of the British government, which preserves peace between them, and arbitrates their differences. All the country to the east of the Jumna is directly under British authority, and is managed by a regular civil establishment, for the collection of the revenue and administration of justice. The tracts to the south of the Chumbul, comprehending Gualior, Gohud, Narwar, &c., with the exception of the town and district of Kalpee, are either in the possession of, or tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia.

The chief towns in the Agra, besides its capital, are Alvar, the capital of the Macherry Rajah; Bhurtpoor, the capital of the Jauts; Deeg, another strong Jaut fortress; Mathura, Bindrabund, Kanoje, Etawah, Gualior, Gohud, Kalpee, Narwar, and Furruckabad. The natives are, in general, a handsome, robust race of men, and consist of a mixture of Hindoos and Mahomedans, few of the Seiks having come so far south. A considerable number of the cultivators to the west of the Jumna are Jauts, and the country of the Macherry Rajah contains many Mewatties, long noted for their thievish propensities. The Hindoo religion is still predominant, although the country has been (until recently) permanently subject to Mahomedan princes since the thirteenth century. Pagodas are numerous, and mosques rare, while the Rajpoot and Brahminical races prevail among the peasantry. The woods and jungles are full of peacocks, another symptom of Hindooism; and most of the names are followed by the affix of Singh, which ought to be peculiar to the Rajpoots of noble descent; but all the Jauts assume it without ceremony, as do also the Seiks, who, being apostates from the Brahminical faith, have still less claim to such a distinction. The language of common intercourse is the Hindostany; but the Persian (for which English might now be substituted) is used for

public and official documents, and is also spoken in conversation by the higher classes of Mahomedans. The Bruj dialect is spoken round the city of Agra, and extends to the Vindhya mountains. In the words of the Lord's prayer in this language, twenty-eight correspond with those occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, besides two or three Sanscrit words of frequent recurrence in the Bengalese. The ancient language of Kanoje, the capital of upper Hindostan, at the period of the first Mahomedan invasion, is thought by Mr. Colebrooke to form the basis of the modern Hindostany.

In the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity this province must have formed a very important division of Hindostan, as it contained Kanoje, Mathura, and Bindrabund, the seats of their most famous empires, and still among the most venerated places of pilgrimage. The city of Agra is supposed to have been the birthplace of the Avatar, or incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Parasu Rama, whose conquests extended to and included Ceylon. After the Mahomedan invasion it followed the fate of Delhi, and during the reign of Acber, as containing the temporary metropolis, was the leading province of the empire. Subsequent to the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, it was alternately possessed and ravaged by the Jauts, Maharattas, and different commanders deputed from Delhi to restore peace and the imperial authority, neither of which they were ever able to effect. One of the latter, Nadjiff Khan, governed the districts north of the Chumbul from 1777 until his death, independent of all control from the Delhi sovereign. (*Abul Fazel, Scott, Colebrooke, Missionaries, Wilford, &c.*)

AGRA DISTRICT.—The modern district of Agra joins the Delhi division a short distance north of Kosee, and extends along the banks of the Jumna to its junction with the Chumbul. On the west it is bounded by the pergunnahs of Deeg, the Bhurtpoor territories, and the pergunnahs of Dholpoor, Barree, and Rajakera. That portion situated between the Chumbul and the Jumna is a table land, elevated above the beds of both rivers about sixty feet, and composed of a light soil. In many parts, during the dry season, the tanks, streams, and rivulets are without water, which, for agricultural and domestic purposes, is procured from wells. Cultivation in this district, when compared with its condition in the Company's old provinces, has made but little progress. The waste lands are very extensive, and a portion of them might, without injustice, be set aside for the maintenance of watchmen, or of any other public measure. This backward state of the agriculture is in a great measure to be ascribed to its locality, and the peculiar political relations in which it is circumstanced; the contiguity of independent states, separated in many parts from the British territories by an imaginary boundary, and inhabited by tribes long noted for their habits of rapine, such as the Mewatties and Buddicks, who, after committing crimes within the limits of Agra, find a secure asylum for their persons and plunder in the adjacent native states, or among the defiles and ravines which intersect the southern portion of this division.

The jurisdiction of Chata contains 175 villages, and is bounded by that of Delhi, by the dominions of the Nabob Ahmed Buksh Khan, and by Bhurtpoor. The inhabitants of this tract have been, from time immemorial, most notorious robbers, and it is only within these fifteen years that their roads could be passed with any degree of safety. This predatory disposition, in addition to the facilities afforded by its frontier position, and much jungle between the villages, requires a more than ordinary share of vigilance and vigour on the part of the magistrate to retain the tract in tolerable subordination. Kosee is a place of consequence, wealth, and

commercial importance. Nundgaow and Bursana are places of considerable resort, owing to the opinion entertained by the Hindoos of their sanctity; but the inhabitants of the first and those of Muchhoe have long had an evil reputation, and the latter being situated on the banks of the Jumna, its natives have fallen under the suspicion of exercising their ingenuity and activity in transferring the property of their neighbours in the Alighur division to their own respective dwellings.

Sonk is a town of considerable size on the immediate frontier of the district. Hurbola, is situated on the high road to Mathura. Between Secundra, near Agra, and Gaowghaut the country is barren, with much jungle, affording no protection to travellers, but extremely well adapted for the concealment of thieves. All is immediately on the Bhurtpoor frontier, and much exposed. The neighbourhood of Jet, lying between Bindrabund and Choumaher, is famous for the bad character of its inhabitants, who too frequently avail themselves of the conveniences afforded by the neighbouring ravines and jungles. The Hindoo sanctuaries of Mathura and Bindrabund are two populous towns, where for security, and to promote an improved system of police, gates have been erected at the principal entrances, and at the heads of the streets and alleys. Prior to 1812, an attempt was made to induce the zemindars to retain a number of watchmen, in proportion to the magnitude of their different villages, but the burthen being found by experience greater than their resources could bear, the establishment was ultimately abandoned. In the section of the police division contiguous to the lands of Rajah Keeruth Singh, a strong police is required; yet in 1812 the only police officer entertained was a Belahur, whose duty it was to report to the head of the tannah the occurrences of his village; and even this functionary complained that his wages were not paid with due punctuality.

The prevailing cri . . n the Agra district is that of robbery on the highway; and the connivance of the zemindars with the robbers, although difficult of direct proof, is an article of universal belief. The presumption is greatly strengthened when the condition of the country prior to its coming under the British government is considered. At that period the zemindars openly sheltered thieves, and shared their plunder; and as the practice avowedly continues in the immediate neighbourhood, the probability amounts almost to a certainty. The land revenue yielded by this district in 1804 did not exceed 8,500,000 rupees, although by Sindia's ministers it had been estimated at thirteen lacks. It was then held by Colonel Hessing, the commandant of Agra, as Jaidad. In 1813, the Agra district was said to contain 1,222,667 cutcha or small begas of land in cultivation, assessed at 1,425,802 rupees, or one rupee two annas per bega of 1,600 square yards; 330,807 begas fit for agriculture, and 902,740 begas entirely waste.—(*R. Turner, Public MS. Documents, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

AGRA (*or Acberabad*).—The capital of the preceding province, commodiously situated on the south west side of the Jumna, which in the month of June is here half a mile broad, and never fordable at any time; lat. 27° 11′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E. The houses of modern Agra like those of Benares consist of several stories, and the streets with the exception of that leading from the fort to the Mathura gate, which is handsome for an Indian city, so narrow as scarcely to admit of a palanquin; but much the greater part of this once flourishing city is now a heap of ruins and almost uninhabited. Six miles to the north, at Secundra, is the mausoleum of the Emperor Acber. From the summit of the minaret in front of it, the spectator's eye may range over a great circuit of country, not less than thirty miles in a direct line. The whole of this space is flat, and filled with the ruins of

ancient grandeur; at a distance the Jumna is seen, and the glittering towers of Agra. The fort is large, and strongly built of a red kind of hard sandstone, brought from the quarries at Futtehpoor. It has a ditch of great depth, and double rampart, the inner one being of an enormous height, with bastions at regular distances.

This city was greatly enlarged and embellished by the Emperor Acber, who made it his capital, and it had also the honour of being the birthplace of Abul Fazel, his prime minister. In 1813, a pension of fifty rupees per month was granted by the British government to Mustapha Khan, a resident here, and the reputed lineal descendant of that meritorious vizier. During the prevalence of the Gallo-Maharatta power in Hindustan, the pension to this individual had been reduced to the miserable pittance of fifteen rupees per annum.

The most remarkable edifice in modern Agra is the Tauje Mahal, built of marble, greatly resembling that of Carrara, and erected by the Emperor Shah Jehan for the celebrated Noor Jehan Begum. This edifice, with its light minars, its great gateway, mosque, and Jumaut Khana, forms the most exquisite group of oriental architecture in existence, and although the more costly mosaics, of twelve different sorts of stone, within the mausoleum, have been partially despoiled of their riches, the general beauty of their structure remains to this day perfectly unimpared. The gardens which occupy the great area in front are adorned with rows of cypresses, and enlivened with fountains, which are still kept in order at the public expense, and usually play on Sunday evenings. Besides the Tauje Mahal and the apartments of the imperial palace, there is a small white marble mosque of singular purity of design, named the Mootee Musjeed, or pearl mosque, which with the Jumna Musjeed, the great chowk contiguous to the principal gate of the fort, and the tomb of Etimaud ud Dowlah, on the opposite bank of the Jumna, with its delicate marble lattice-work and fantastic party-coloured mosaics, are remarkable structures. There is also an old Roman Catholic college still subsisting in the neighbourhood, but in a decayed condition. In 1814, one lack of rupees had been expended by the British government in the repairs of the Tauje and the Emperor Acber's mausoleum at Secundra; but in India, owing to the nature of the climate, the luxuriant vegetation, and other causes, undertakings of this sort may be described as never ending, still beginning. The tomb of Kundehree Begum, another of Shah Jehan's wives, has not been so fortunate, for while that of her rival has been repaired and adorned at a vast expense, the other is polluted by the presence of a court of justice, which holds its sittings there.

The extensive ruins which surround Agra, added to the celebrity of its name, probably gave rise to the exaggerated idea entertained of its present magnitude and population; the portion of the town, however, which is inhabited is comprehended within a very small compass. It does not appear that any enumeration of the inhabitants has ever been made, but if the amount of the town duties on the import of grain for their consumption, compared with Furruckabad and Bareilly, may be taken as any criterion, the inference would be that Agra is the least populous of the whole. In 1813 these duties for Agra were 16,251, for Furruckabad 22,000 rupees; and for Bareilly 22,101 rupees. The present number of inhabitants is probably within sixty thousand, but this number may eventually be expected greatly to increase, from the facility Agra affords to the commerce of western Hindostan, which is already very great, as will appear from the duties paid into the treasury on account of duties received at the custom-house, viz. in 1812-13, 673,006 and in 1813-14, 922,157 rupees. In 1818 the increase of duties, in consequence of the tranquillization of Rajpootana, was such that the customs of Agra exceeded those of the preceding

year by 130,000 rupees, and they have since continued progressively to increase.

Agra with the rest of the province fell under the sway of Madhajee Sindia, and continued in the possession of the Maharattas until 1803, when it surrendered to the British army under Lord Lake. Among the ordnance captured here was one enormous piece, weighing about 96,000 pounds, which Lord Lake endeavoured to float down as a trophy to Calcutta, with the view of having it afterwards sent to England, but it broke through the frame of the raft, and sunk in the sands of the river, where it in all probability still remains. It is not known by whom it was fabricated. Agra, soon after its capture, was made the head quarters of a civil establishment for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, subordinate to the Bareilly court of circuit A strong garrison is maintained in the fort and military cantonments, and the interior of the fortifications have been much improved, both as to arrangement and cleanliness. The higher parts of the fort are from fifty to sixty feet above the level of the river, and as it is filled with buildings of brick, stone, and marble, the heat is excessive.—(*Fullarton, R. Turner, Ker, Sir D. Ochterlony, &c.*)

Ahmedabad.—A British district in the province of Gujerat, established about the year 1817, when the Sabermatty river was fixed on as the boundary between the zillah of Ahmedabad and the eastern zillah north of the Myhie. Besides the geographical advantage of this division a marked difference was discovered in the habits, manners, customs, and even languages of the people on the east and western sides. In 1819, the average of the land jumma was Rupees 11,36,277; in 1820, Rupees 11,72,331.

Ahmedabad.—An ancient city in the province of Gujerat, of which it was the Mahomedan capital, situated on the banks of the Sabermatty, which washes its walls. Lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 72° 42′ E. It is mentioned by Sidi Ali in the journal of his travels overland from Gujerat to Constantinople, A.D. 1554.

This was formerly a large city, celebrated for its mosques, minarets, edifices and manufactures; but prior to 1820, the heavy and vexatious municipal duties exacted by the Maharattas had reduced it from one of the most opulent and commercial to one of the most miserable cities in the East. During their government a tax was levied on every luxury and necessary, from the gold kincob to the wretched bundle of fire-wood or vegetables, either brought into or sent out of the city. On its acquisition from the Peshwa in 1818, the British government abolished all these extortions and simplified the collections, establishing an *ad valorem* duty of £2½. per cent. on indigo, raw silk, &c., wholly exempting all articles of consumption, but augmenting the ordinary imposts on opium and tobacco. Besides these alterations all restriction on the transit of the agricultural products of the British territories through the district were entirely removed. This city suffered greatly from the earthquake in 1819, but even then its population was roughly estimated at 100,000 souls, and it probably has not since diminished. Travelling distance from Bombay 321 miles; from Poona 389; from Delhi 610; and from Calcutta by Oojein 1,234 miles.—(*Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Rennell, &c.*)

Ahmednuggur.—A city and fortress in the modern province of Aurungabad, to which it formerly gave its own appellation; lat. 19° 5′ N. lon. 74° 55′ E.

After the dissolution of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, Ahmed Nizam Shah established the independent state of Ahmednuggur, about the year A.D. 1489; in 1493 he laid the foundation of this town, and made it his capital. He died in 1508.

Bourahan Shah died in 1553.
Hossein Nizam Shah in 1565.
Morteza Nizam Shah became in-

sane, and was murdered by his son Meeraun Hossein, A.D. 1487.

Meeraun Hossein was assassinated after a reign of two months and three days.

Ismael Shah was taken prisoner and confined by his father, after a short reign.

Boorahan Shah died in 1594.

Ibrahim Shah, having reigned four months, was killed in battle.

Bahadur Shah, an infant, was taken prisoner by the Moguls, and confined for life in the fortress of Gualior, and with him ended the Nizam Shahy dynasty of Ahmednuggur, about the year 1600. Nominal sovereigns of this family existed at Dowletabad until 1634, when it being also taken, the Nizam Shahy dominions became a province of the Mogul empire under the name of Aurungabad.

Ahmednuggur followed the fate of the Delhi empire until the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, when it was at a very early period seized on by the Maharattas, and continued to form a portion of the Peshwa's dominions until 1797, when Dowlet Row Sindia compelled the Peshwa to cede this important fortress with the surrounding district, by which cession he not only obtained the command of the city of Poona, but also the best entrance into the territories of the Peshwa and of our ally the Nizam. In 1803 it was taken by the army under General Wellesley, and ceded to the British by Dowlet Row Sindia, at the treaty of peace concluded on the 30th December 1803, with the view of being ultimately restored to the Peshwa.

The existing fort is entirely of stone, of an oval shape, and about a mile in circumference, with a great many round towers, and a glacis (a vain precaution in native forts), to cover such parts of the base of the wall as are exposed. The ditch is deep and broad, and the whole area within is vaulted for stores. The city stands about half a mile from the fort, and is also enclosed by a stone wall, and contains a handsome quadrangular chowk, and several tolerably well-built streets. The principal edifices in the vicinity are, an ancient palace of the Ahmednuggur sultans, a massy pile surrounded by a magnificent moat faced by solid masonry, supplied by a cascade of clear water from the adjacent hills; and the mausoleum of Salabut Jung, situated on the top of a mountain. At present Ahmednuggur is the head station of a civil establishment, and in 1820 was estimated to contain 20,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison.

Travelling distance from Poona, 83 miles; from Bombay by Poona, 181; from Hyderabad, 335; from Oojein, 365, from Nagpoor, 403; from Delhi, 830; and from Calcutta, 1,119 miles.—(*Scott, Fullarton, Ferishta, Malcolm, Fitzclarence, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Ahmednuggur.—A British district in the province of Aurungabad, composed of conquests made from the Peshwa in the war of 1818. In 1821 the total extent of land in this collectorate was 5,999,000 begas, of which 3,748,000 were stated to be lost in rivers, rocks, hills, or included in enams (charity lands exempted from the revenue assessment), leaving 2,249,000 begas of arable land in the hands of government. The total number of villages under the collector's superintendence was 2,647; of which 156 were enam, 198 renewed serinjammy, 179 belonged to Sindia and his dependants, eighty to Holkar and his dependents, forty-four to the Nizam, and twenty-five recently assigned in jaghire, leaving 1,963 in the hands of government. The jumma or assessment to the land revenue was 2,169,248 rupees; but the net clear revenue, after deducting charges, was only 1,280,762 rupees.

The Ahmednuggur district is one of the most elevated and temperate regions of the Deccan, but is scantily peopled, having fallen into decay after the war and famine of 1803-4, aggravated by the more recent destruction caused by the epidemic. The

neighbourhood of the capital, however, has greatly recovered, and in 1820 presented an extensive sheet of the richest cultivation.—(*Pottinger, Fullarton, &c.*)

AHMEDPOOR.—A town in the province of Orissa, eleven miles south from Juggernaut. Long. 85° 54′ E., lat. 19° 58′ N.

AHMOOD (*Amod*).—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, twenty miles N. by W. from Broach. Lat. 22° 3′, lon. 73° 6′ E. The soil here is generally a rich black earth, suitable for cotton, rice, wheat, and a great variety of Indian grains.—(*Forbes, &c.*)

AHMUDAH (*or Moddha*).—A large fortified village in Bundlecund, thirty-two miles south from Banda.

AIBECCA.—A small town in the province of Travancore, having a bar harbour, 115 miles N.W. from Cape Comorin, lat. 9° 7′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E. Lime is burned here from muscle and oyster shells, immense quantities of which are found in the neighbouring salt lakes.—(*Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

AIOU BABA.—A Papuan isle five miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and situated to the north of Wagecoo. Lat. 0° 24′ N., lon. 131° 10′ E.

The inhabitants of Aiou Baba are mostly Papuas, with bushy frizzled hair. They cultivate little, having plenty of fish and turtle, which they barter at Wageeoo for sago. They also sell tortoise-shell and *biche-de-mar* to the Chinese traders, and occasionally birds of paradise are also to be purchased here. These islands formerly were nominally subject to the Sultan of Tidore.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

AIRYACOTTA.—A small town in the Coimbatoor district, the residence of a Poligar, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Nagajee river, about twenty miles E. by S. from Daraporam.

AITE.—A small town in the province of Agra, eighteen miles S.S.W. from Jaloun. Lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 79° 12′ E.

AJMEER, OR RAJPOOTANA.

(*Rajputana*) —This large province is situated in the centre of Hindostan, between the 24th and 31st degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Mooltan, Lahore, and Delhi; on the south by Gujerat and Malwa; on the east it has Delhi and Agra; and on the west Mooltan, including the long principality of Sinde. In length from north to south, this province may be estimated at 350 miles by 200 the average breadth. It is occasionally named Marwar, but this appellation ought properly to be restricted to the Joudpoor territories. The principal modern geographical and territorial subdivisions are the following, commencing from the north:

1. The Bhatty country.
2. Bicanere.
3. The great Sandy desert.
4. Jesselmere.
5. Joudpoor.
6. Marwar.
7. Nagore.
8. Shekawatty.
9. Jeypoor.
10. Ajmeer district.
11. Harrowty.
12. Odeypoor.
13. Mewar.
14. Sarowy.

The soil of this province may well be called sandy, as it is by Abul Fazel, and its general appearance is sufficiently dismal, a considerable portion of it being absolute desert. From the western frontier of the Shekawutty country to Bahawulpoor, is a distance of 280 miles, of which only the last 100 miles south-west from Bahawulpoor is wholly destitute of inhabitants, water, and vegetation. From Shekawutty frontier to Poogul, a distance of 180 miles, the road is over hills and valleys of loose sand. These hillocks exactly resemble such as are formed by the wind on the sea-shore, but far exceeding them

in height, reaching from twenty to one hundred feet. They are said by the natives to shift their position, and to alter their shapes as the wind blows. During the summer the passage of this portion of the desert is dangerous, on account of the clouds of moving sand; but in winter they exhibit a greater degree of permanence, and besides phoke, bear a sort of grass, the thorny bushes of the baubool, and the bair or jujube, the aggregate presenting an appearance somewhat resembling verdure.

Among these suffocating sand-hills a miserable village is sometimes met with, consisting of a few round straw huts, with low sides and conical roofs, like little stooks of corn, surrounded by hedges of dry thorny branches, the whole extremely combustible. Surrounding these abodes of misery are a few fields, depending for moisture on dews and the periodical rains, cultivated with crops of the poorer kinds of pulse, and of bajarry, or the *holcus spicatus*, which last is raised with great difficulty. The wells are often 300 feet deep, and one in particular was found to be 345 feet; yet with this enormous descent, some are only three feet in diameter. An examination of the strata penetrated would be a curious and useful research. The water procured with so much trouble is always brackish, unwholesome, and extremely small in quantity. Two bullocks working for one night can always empty a well. These wells are lined with masonry, and on the occurrence of any exigence, by being covered with boards heaped over with sand, may be effectually concealed by the natives from their enemies, so that a scarcity of water is at once a source of woe and protection. In the midst of these burning sands, the most juicy of all fruits, the water melon, is found in astonishing profusion, growing from a small stalk not thicker than that of the common melon, and attaining a circumference of three and four feet. The optical illusion, termed *mirage* by the French, is common in this desert, and deceives travellers with the appearance of extensive lakes amidst parched and arid sands.

From Poogul to Bahawulpoor the road is over a hard flat clay, which sounds under the horses' feet like a board, and is wholly destitute of vegetation. Except the fort and pool of Moujghur, and two wells sixteen miles from Bahawulpoor, there is neither water nor inhabitants to be found, yet this is the road most frequented by caravans. On approaching within a few miles of Bahawulpoor, the desert ceases all at once, and a cultivated country, abounding with trees and water, commences. In some parts this desert is 400 miles in breadth, and extends far beyond the limits of Rajpootana. On the north it reaches to the edge of the Chinaub, where it is moderately fertile, on the east it gradually mixes with the cultivated parts of the Delhi and Agra provinces, and on the south is separated from the province of Cutch by the enormous salt marsh named the Runn. Such is the description of this desolate region, which seems to be progressively extending, yet it is within the influence of the periodical rains, which annually pour a deluge on its thirsty surface, where it is soon absorbed, and, for want of population and industry, lost to the service of man.

The common inhabitants of the desert are Jauts, the higher classes Rhatore Rajpoots. The first are little in stature, black in complexion, and ill-looking, presenting strong appearances of wretchedness and squalid poverty. The latter are stout and handsome, with hooked noses and Jewish features, haughty in their manners and indolent, and almost continually intoxicated with opium. The stock of the country consists of bullocks and camels, which last are numerous, and sometimes used in the plough. Of the wild animals the desert rat is most numerous, and in shape greatly resembles a squirrel. Foxes of small sizes and different colours also abound. Antelopes are found in some parts, and also the goorkhur, or wild ass, mentioned in the book of Job. This quadruped

more resembles a mule than an ass, and is remarkable for its shyness and speed. At a kind of shuffling trot, peculiar to itself, it will leave the fleetest horse behind.

This province is remarkable as being nearly destitute of rivers, except in the southern extremity, although the natives have traditions of streams that formerly traversed particular parts of it, but of which even the traces have long disappeared. In the more hilly parts of the south some mountain streams descend, but are unable to overcome the arid nature of the desert, and it would require infinite labour and a dense population to conduct canals from the rivers of the Punjab in Lahore. Except in the hilly districts, also, trees are little seen, though much wanted to shade the parched inhabitants: the consequence is that timber for building purposes is extremely scarce, the nearest supply being procured from Agra. The villages are generally built of a coarse stone brought from the adjacent hills, and even the roofs are usually of the same material. When of thatch, twisted grass is very often substituted for rafters. In the southern quarter nature has been less severe, as there the Chumbul, Calysind, and Banass, water a portion of Rajpootana, which also in different spots presents something like an appearance of verdure. The soil of the whole province is remarkably saline, containing many salt springs and lakes, such as that of Sambher, and generating nitre spontaneously. The water of a large proportion of the wells is also more or less brackish. Notwithstanding the combination of so many circumstances adverse to the agriculture of this province, it has been remarked, that in ordinary years there is not more variation in the price of grain through Ajmeer from December to December, than in the green and fertile province of Bengal, where always before harvest, grain rises to a pitch exceedingly distressing to the poor. Yet in the more sterile parts of Rajpootana there is only one crop annually. Towards the south large tracts occur that are wholly of a mountainous character, such as sections of Mewar and Jeypoor (or Dhoomdar), and elsewhere to the east. Between Marwar and Mewar peaks and mountains occur more than 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and towards its western boundary the mountains of Aboo are supposed to rise (for they have not yet been measured) to treble that height.

The three grand divisions of Rajpootana are, 1st. Odeypoor, named also Mewar, and its princes in history the Ranas of Chitore; 2d. Joudpoor, named also Marwar, and its sovereign occasionally described as the Rhatore Raja, being of that tribe; 3dly. Jeypoor, Jyenagur, or Ambher, three names of one state. These appear to have been the original Rajpoot states, the others having been formed from the dismemberment of territories from the dominions of these three: but in the latter days must be added the Rajas of Jesselmere and Bicanere, and the chiefs of Kotah, Boondee, and Banswara. Under these heads respectively, and of the other modern territorial subdivisions, further topographical details will be found, it being intended here only to exhibit a general view of the province. Besides these native chiefs, various portions of Rajpootana were until lately possessed by intruders, such as Sindia and Holkar, to the first of whom the city of Ajmeer and the forty-six surrounding pergunnahs belonged, and to the second the district of Tonk Rampoora, now possessed by Ameer Khan. On the south-eastern quarter are the principalities of Kotah, Boondee, and other Rajpoot states, formerly tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia; and from the whole province of Rajpootana, owing to the discord of their chiefs, every freebooter who could muster sufficient force was long accustomed to levy occasional contributions. The ancient Rajpoot families that have exercised power and stand first in reputation are the following:

The Sesodiyas...... of Odeypoor.

The Rhatores .... Joudpoor.
Kutchwas ...... Jeypoor.
Chowhans ...... the Rajas of Kotah and Boondee spring from the Hara, a branch of the Chowhans.

The constitution of these countries resembles the feudal system, each district, town, and even village, being governed by petty chiefs, dignified with the title of thakoor or lord, who frequently yield but a nominal obedience to the person who has the reputation of being their sovereign or superior. The land rents are very low, but every village is obliged to furnish a certain number of horsemen at the shortest notice. The Rajpoots are hardy and brave, and extremely attached to their respective chiefs. They are also much addicted to the use of opium, this deleterious drug being produced by them on all occasions, and presented to visitors as betel is in other parts of India. They are usually divided into two great tribes, the Rhatores and the Chohan Seesodya Rajpoots. Respecting the number of inhabitants, but a very vague conjecture can be hazarded, the extent of country not absolutely desert or uninhabited being so enormous. By comparing, however, the area of the province with that of others similarly situated, the population of which has been better established, there is great reason to believe the whole does not much exceed four millions of souls, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to ten Hindoos. The principal towns are Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Odeypoor, Ajmeer, Neemutch, Kotah, Boondee Chitore, Shapoorah, Bicanere, and Jesselmere.

Although Rajpootana is central to Hindostan, and its eastern frontier be within ninety miles of Delhi, it never was thoroughly subdued either by the Patan or Mogul dynasties. Rajas of Ajmeer are mentioned by Ferishta so early as A.D. 1008, at which period they joined a combination of Hindoo princes against Mahmood of Ghizni, and in 1193 it was conquered, or rather overrun, by Mahomed the first Gauride sovereign of India. After this date it continued tributary to the throne of Delhi, and on account of the rebellious conduct of its chiefs was frequently invaded by the emperors, who repeatedly took and destroyed all their capital towns. The province notwithstanding never became a regularly organized possession like Delhi, Agra, and many other countries much more remote from the seat of government, but remained in a sort of half independent condition, paying a tribute, and furnishing the imperial armies with a certain number of Rajpoot mercenaries, who were always held in high estimation for their bravery and fidelity, and served as a counterpoise to the Mogul and Afghan soldiery.

After the death of Aurungzebe in 1707, and the dissolution of the Mogul empire which ensued, it continued under a nominal subjection to the Delhi throne until about A.D 1748, when total independence was assumed by its chiefs and princes. The interval elapsed since then has been occupied by internal warfare, and by invasions of the Maharattas and other hordes of plunderers. During the latter part of the reign of Madhajee Sindia, and the commencement of that of his nephew Dowlet Row, they were near being completely subdued by the disciplined infantry under Generals de Boigne and Perron, in the pay of these two chiefs. They were relieved from their apprehensions of impending subjugation by the depression, in 1803, of their grand oppressor Dowlet Row Sindia, whose means of inflicting evil were greatly curtailed by the war which he then undertook against the British government.

The Raja of Bicanere is probably the least important of the five princes of Rajpootana. Those of Joudpoor and Jeypoor are at the head of considerable states, and the reduced condition of the Odeypoor Raja is kept from total insignificance by his high rank, and the respect paid to him as the purest of the Rajpoot race. In

1807 a contest arose between the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor, each pretending to the honour of marrying the daughter of this high-born chieftain, and in the mean time allowing their dominions to be ravaged by Ameer Khan, Holkar and Sindia, who pretended to espouse the cause of each respectively, and in reality plundered both. In fact, for many years this large province was so unceasingly harassed and devastated by these depredators, that every one of the Rajpoot chiefs repeatedly begged and entreated to be admitted into a federal union with the British government, offering in some cases half their dominions for protection to the remainder; but the non-interfering system adopted by the latter did not permit of these overtures being accepted. A distinct perception of the misery they had suffered, was the sole motive which induced these proud and turbulent tribes so long and so unsuccessfully to seek a connexion with the British nation. This was at length conceded in 1818, when they were admitted into the general federation, by the conditions of which, mutual support in the field was plighted, while by the same instrument the feudal states (each equal and independent) are withheld from disturbing the general tranquillity by attacking each other. Their political differences are in future to be submitted to the arbitration of the British government, which averts the necessity of resorting to the sword on petty points of honour, heretofore rendered inevitable by the prejudices of the country. Where the government was exercised with any kind of efficiency, there was no difficulty in settling the terms, which were to pay the tribute demandable by the Patans or Maharattas into the British treasury at Delhi, which would account for the amount to the respective parties. The great mass of the cultivators were highly pleased with these arrangements, and the prospect of future safety which it afforded them; but some of the old thakoors, and higher classes of nobility, were not equally satisfied with the change, as under the prior anarchy they were fast establishing a species of independence in their respective jaghires, which they were compelled to relinquish.

It was an important part of the original plan, not hastily to urge the whole mass of military adventurers to despair, by depriving them at once of their accustomed means of subsistence; accordingly Sir David Ochterlony made the tender of service to eight of the best Patan battalions and to about 3,000 horse. The first, after pensioning off the superior native officers, were formed into four battalions for provincial duties, two of which were sent to the Delhi province, and the other two retained in Rajpootana, British officers being appointed to command the whole. The horse were formed into risallas of 500 each, and as only the best were taken, rendered good service. In this manner was the destruction of the predatory Patan power, which had been expected to require the greatest exertion of militery resources, wholly accomplished by the extraordinary address with which Sir D. Ochterlony combined negotiation with skilful military movements.

By these arrangements the Rajpoot states were entirely liberated from Maharatta interference, and placed under General Ochterlony as resident and commander of the forces in Rajpootana, where cantonments have been formed at Neemutch and Nusseerabad, near the city of Ajmeer, which, along with the pergunnahs adjacent, was received from Sindia in exchange for a portion of the Peshwa's territories in Malwa. Since that event multitudes of people have emerged from the hills and fastnesses, where they had sought refuge, and have again occupied their ancient and long-deserted villages. In no part of Hindostan has the British regime had the advantage of so favourable a contrast with that which it supplanted as in Rajpootana, the transition having been so sudden, and no where are the peasantry so uni-

versally sensible of the great improvement in their condition which has taken place. Security and comfort are now established, where misery and terror before existed, and the ploughshare is again in peace turning up a soil, which for many seasons had never been stirred except by the hoofs of predatory cavalry. But although the Rajpoot states, by the recent course of events, have gained deliverance from an oppression more systematic and brutal, than perhaps ever before trampled on humanity, it is not to be expected they will all at once abandon their irregular habits, or that tribes, who according to their own notions were created for the express purpose of fighting, will so suddenly change their natures as not to require the frequent interference of the British, and their military coercion.—(*Elphinstone, Metcalfe, Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Fullarton, &c.*)

AJMEER (*Ajamer, from Aja, a goat, and meru, the sacred mountain at the North Pole*).—A city in the province of Ajmeer, of which it was the former capital, lat. 26° 31′ N., lon. 74° 28′ E., eighty miles W.S.W. from Jeypoor. It stands at the bottom of a hill, the summit of which, named Taraghur, is fortified, and was formerly considered impregnable to open force. In 1819 the interior was very ruinous, owing to its long misgovernment, but the inhabitants were again collecting from various quarters. The houses are of masonry, and though decayed, still present indications of former opulence. The old palace and gardens of Shah Jehan still exist, and the former contain several habitable rooms. The principal object of attraction, however, is the tomb of Khoja Moyen ud Deen, a renowned Mahomedan saint, to whose tomb the great and wise emperor Acber made a pilgrimage from Agra (230 miles) barefoot, in order to procure male progeny, in which he succeeded. Crowds of pilgrims still frequent the saint's tomb, and in Malwa it is not uncommon for pilgrims who have been at the Ajmeer sanctuary, to set up a brick or stone taken from the tomb, near their dwelling, and become saints themselves, and have pilgrimages made to them in consequence of possessing such a relic. Madhajee and Dowlet Row Sindia, although Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion were remarkable for their devotion to Mussulman saints and customs, and bestowed rich gifts on this tomb, and its peerzadas or attendant priests. Jehangeer, the son and successor of the emperor Acber, occasionally kept his court here, which caused the embassy of Sir Thomas Row in 1616, at which period the East-India Company had a regular factory established here. Four miles from hence is a remarkable place of Hindoo pilgrimage named Pooskhur (the lake or tank), and at Nusserabad, fifteen miles distant S.S.E. from the city, are the cantonments of a British brigade.

This city was acquired by treaty from Dowlet Row Sindia in 1818, and was found by Sir David Ochterlony in a state of the utmost desolation and decay, but when revisited in 1823, he was surprised at the rapid improvement it had experienced under the management of Mr. Wilder the civil commissioner. Commerce had completely revived, and the population more than tripled since 1818; new houses and shops were daily erecting, under a system of architectural uniformity, making Ajmeer altogether one of the most regular and handsome cities within the British dominions, and externally only second to Jeypoor, on account of the multitude of religious edifices possessed by the latter, the result of many ages. The native population were fully sensible of their own improved condition within so short a space of time, and expressed their consciousness and surprise. Travelling distance from Delhi 230 miles; from Bombay 650, and from Calcutta 1,030 miles.—(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Broughton, Rennell, Fullarton, MS. &c.*)

Ajuntee (*Ajayanti, the difficult or impregnable pass*).—A town situated near a celebrated pass through the Berar mountains, fifty-three miles N. by E. from Aurungabad, lat. 20° 34′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E. The ascent to Ajuntee is by a wide and tolerably well constructed road, protected at the summit by a gateway, leading through a stone fortification that lines the cliff. The town stands on a table land two miles distant from the summit, and covers a large extent of surface, but in 1820 was still thinly inhabited. At the northern entrance of the town there is an octagonal serai of a striking appearance, and at six miles distance there are some Hindoo cave temples resembling those of Ellora and Elephanta, which have not yet been explored.—(*Fullarton, Lt Bayley, &c.*)

Akeepoor.—A small town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Dewas, which in 1820 contained 200 houses.

Akoat.—A town in Berar, twenty-nine miles W S W. from Ellichpoor, lat. 21° 6′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E.

Akolah.—A considerable city in the province of Berar, with high handsome walls, and surrounded by extensive ruins; lat. 20° 42′ N., lon 77° 10′ E.

Akogur.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-two miles west from Bhurtpoor, lat 27° 16′ N., lon. 76° 52′ E.

Akrauny.—A fortified town in the province of Candeish, among the Satpoora mountains, belonging to a petty Raja lat 21° 45′ N., lon 74° 24′ E. Seventy-five miles E from Broach, at a short distance to the north of this place, there are passes into the Naundode and Sultanpoor districts.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Akulcotta.—A town and small district in the province of Beeder, bounded by the Seena river. The town stands in lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 76° 18′ E., sixty miles N.N.E. from the city of Bejapoor.

Akyab.—The name of the principal military station in the province of Arracan, the situation of which has not yet been laid down in any map.

Alakananda River.—A sacred river of northern Hindostan, which springs from the Himalaya mountains, and joins the Bhagirathi at Devaprayaga, the junction of the two forming the Ganges. A very short distance above Bhadrinath, the breadth of the Alakananda does not exceed twenty feet, and further up the stream is concealed under an immense heap of snow, the accumulation of ages At Devaprayaga the Alakananda is the largest river, being 142 feet in breadth, and rising during the rains forty-seven feet above its lowest level. In this river are a great many fish of the roher species (*cyprinus denticulatus*) four or five feet in length, which are fed daily by the Brahmins, and some are so tame as to take bread out of the hand There is also a species of fish named soher, six or seven feet long; the scales on the back and sides are large, of a beautiful green, and encircled with a white golden border; the belly white, slightly tinged with a gold colour; the tail and fins of a dark bronze. The flavour of this fish is equal to it beauty, being remarkably fine and delicate.—(*Raper, &c.*)

Alforeze or Horaforaz.—See Borneo.

Alguarda.—A Portuguese fortress in the province of Bejapoor, commanding the entrance of the harbour of Goa, situated on a point of land to the north of Goa bay.

Alibunder.—A town belonging to the Ameers of Sinde, sixty-three miles E by S. from Tatta; lat. 24° 24′ N., lon. 69° 13′ E. At this place a small branch of the Goonee river is stopped by a mound of earth, which separates it from the Lukputbunder river.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Aligaum.—A town in Berar, sixty-eight miles S.W. from Ellichpoor, lat. 20° 26′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

ALIGHUR DISTRICT.—A district in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, situated about the 28th deg. of N. lat. To the north it has the district of Merut, or South Saharunpoor; to the south those of Agra and Furruckabad, to the east it has Furruckabad and Bareilly, and on the west, Agra and the Delhi reserved territories. The two boundary streams are the Ganges and Jumna, and in the interior are many water-courses or rivulets, which during the rains have a current, but are dry for the rest of the year. The northern portion of this district extending, from Alighur to the vicinity of Delhi, is one of the most desolate tracts in the Doab. Scarcely a tree is to be seen, but low dark jungle abounds, and afforded at one period a convenient harbour for the banditti that then infested the province. The country to the southward of Alighur is in general highly cultivated. The principal towns are Alighur, Coel, Hatras, Moorsaun, and Anopshehr, and it fell under the British dominion in A.D. 1803.

In 1815, this district was estimated to contain 1,640,242 pucka begas in cultivation, assessed at 31,49,809 rupees, or one rupee fifteen annas per bega; but the large talooks of Thakoor Diaram were not included, no particulars respecting them being then known. There were also 1,147,045 begas fit for cultivation, and 1,188,665 waste. The soil is fertile and productive under proper cultivation, and the natives a race superior to the Bengalese, and the other more eastern tribes, but until the conquest of Hatras turbulent, predatory, and difficult to govern.—(*Blunt, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

ALIGHUR (*Alighar*).—The capital of the above district, lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 77° 59′ E., fifty-three miles north from the city of Agra. In 1803 it was one of Dowlet Row Scindia's principal depôts for military stores and was then stormed by the army under Lord Lake, with great slaughter to the assailants. It was soon after made the head-quarters of a civil establishment for the collection of the revenue, and the administration of justice, subordinate to the *Bareilly division*.

Properly speaking, there is no town of Alighur. Coel, about two miles distant, is the town and the residence of the civil authorities. The fort is of a square form with round bastions, a formidable ditch and glacis, and a single entrance protected by a strong ravelin. A considerable sum, prior to 1820, had been expended in reducing the rampart and otherwise improving the defences. The interior is now cleared of all buildings whatever, and of the public and private buildings formerly occupied by General Perron and his officers not a vestige remains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ALINGAR.—A wide valley in Afghanistan, district of Lughman, chiefly inhabited by Ghiljie Afghans, who to the pastoral employment of shepherds unite the predatory vocation of thieves. This valley produces grain of all sorts, and has many glens that open into it on both sides, some of which are separated by narrow summits from the adjacent valley of Cooner. When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, this tract was subject to the throne of Delhi, and emperor Acber.—(*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

ALIPORA.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles S.W. from Jeitpoor, lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 79° 19′ E.

ALIPOOTA.—A town in Ceylon situated on the top of a hill in a populous neighbourhood, and the principal military station in lower Ouva; lat. 6° 54′ N., lon. 81° 25′ E., fifty-three miles S.E. from Candy.

ALISHUNG.—A valley in Afghanistan, division of Lughman, at present (1809) chiefly inhabited by converted Caffres. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "The district of Alishung is surrounded by large mountains covered

with snow, in which is the source of the river Alishung; the inhabitants are called Caffres."—(*Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Alkoondara Droog.—A small and decayed fort in the Balaghaut province, situated on a low hill with a miserable village below, six miles S.W. from the town of Bellary.—(*Fullarton.*)

ALLAHABAD.

A large province of Hindostan proper situated between the 24th and 26th degrees of north lat. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Oude and Agra; on the south by the Hindoo province of Gundwana; to the east it has the provinces of Bahar and Gundwana; and on the west Malwa and Agra. In length it may be estimated at 270 miles by 120, the average breadth. At present the principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following: 1. The district of Allahabad; 2. Benares; 3. The district of Mirzapoor; 4. The district of Juanpoor; 5. The Rewah territory; 6. The district of Bundelcund; 7. The district of Cawnpoor; 8 The Manicpoor territory.

The surface of the province adjacent to the rivers Ganges and Jumna is flat and very productive; but to the south-west, in the Bundelcund district, the country forms an elevated table-land, diversified with high hills, containing the diamond mines of Pannah, and formerly abounding in strong holds. The flat country is extremely sultry, and subject to the hot winds, from which the more elevated region is exempted. In the north the principal rivers are the Ganges, Jumna, Goomty, and Caramnassa, and their branches, besides innumerable smaller streams. In the hilly country the rivers are fewer, the periodical rains and well water being chiefly relied on for agricultural purposes; but, upon the whole, Allahabad may be reckoned one of the richest and most productive provinces of Hindostan.

The principal exports are sugar, cotton, indigo, cotton cloths, opium, saltpetre, diamonds, &c. The imports are various, salt from the maritime parts of Bengal being one of the staple articles in regular demand. Within the limits of this province are many large, ancient, and celebrated towns, such as Benares, Allahabad (two holy places of pilgrimage), Callinjer, Chatterpoor, Juanpoor, Mirzapoor, Chunar, and Ghazipoor. The population is very great, in the proportion of about one Mahomedan to seven Hindoos.

We learn from Abul Fazel that the territory composing the modern province of Allahabad was invaded so early as A.D. 1020 by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, who made a few compulsory converts to the Mahomedan faith. He returned again in 1023, but made no permanent establishment. It was afterwards wholly subdued by the Patan emperors of Delhi, and during the fifteenth century formed the basis of an independent kingdom, the capital of which was Juanpoor. Along with the other Patan districts it devolved to the Moguls, and was formed into a distinct soubah by the Emperor Acber, who new-named the Hindoo sanctuary (or prayaga) Allahabad, an appellation which it still retains. After the fall of the Mogul dynasty, the northern quarter was appropriated by the Nabobs of Oude; but in 1764 Korah and Allahabad were ceded to Shah Allum, the then nominal and fugitive sovereign of Delhi, through the interference of Lord Clive with Shuja-ud-Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude. In 1772 they reverted to the latter, when that ill-advised monarch (Shah Allum) of his own accord returned to Delhi, and became an engine of mischief in the custody of the Maharattas.

In 1775, the Bengal government acquired the Benares districts by treaty with Asoph-ud-Dowlah, and Allahabad and the adjacent districts in 1801, by cession from Saadet Ali, his successor on the throne of Oude. The south-eastern districts were re-

ceived from the Mahratta Peshwa in 1803, in exchange for an equivalent tract in the Carnatic above the ghauts and in Gujerat.—(*Abul Fazel, J. Grant, Fifth Report, Ironside, &c.*)

ALLAHABAD DISTRICT.—This judicial subdivision is mostly composed of territory immediately adjacent to the city of Allahabad, and is intersected by the great rivers Ganges and Jumna, but the geographical distribution is ill-arranged, as some portions are ninety and one hundred miles from the residence of the magistrate. The soil when properly cultivated is remarkably fertile, and yields large returns to the husbandman. Wheat is the principal crop, and the land most favourable for its production a rich sandy loam, which is a very common soil in this vicinity. During the dry season the land must be artificially watered, which is a much more laborious task than the cultivation. Four bullocks and three labourers are with difficulty able to water an acre in nine days, the average crop is reckoned fifteen maunds per bega, or about seven quarters per acre. Barley, peas, oil, seeds, and a yellow dye are often mixed with the wheat. The average rent of wheat land is about one pound sterling per acre.

In this district the breed of sheep is small even for India, and the fleece consists of a coarse black wool, or rather hair, altogether unsuitable for cloth, but which answers very well for the manufacture of shepherd's rugs. The usual dress of the peasantry is merely a piece of coarse cloth tied round the middle, one blanket, and a sort of turban made of a cotton clout, these three articles composing the sum total of their wardrobe. The internal commerce has progressively increased since 1801, and the culture of many articles, especially indigo and cotton, very greatly augmented, on account of the increased and increasing demand from Europe.

In every subdivision there is a small trade of cloth, grain, and other home productions. In the towns of Currah and Shahzadpoor a considerable quantity of cotton cloths and chintzes was formerly manufactured for exportation, but now it is much reduced. In Allahabad and Futtehpoor advances are still made for the species of cloth named baftaes and sullums. The transit commerce through Allahabad consists mostly of Sambher salt, cotton, unwrought iron, and shawl goods, which, after supplying local consumption, are forwarded to the lower provinces. Prior to 1802, a considerable commerce was carried on at Phoolpoor, in pergunnah Secundra, to the north of the Ganges. The commodities circulated were salt, cotton, iron, drugs of various kinds, copper, zinc, lead, broad cloth, and other articles of Bengal, but the traders then were so much oppressed by the Nabob of Oude's officers, that they retired with their capital to Mirzapoor, and other places of greater security. Shahzadpoor and Phoolpoor are still much resorted to by traders from the Nabob of Oude's reserved dominions, and until 1794, while the cloths manufactured in the Doab were much in demand for the European market, many mercantile houses were enabled to invest from fifteen to twenty thousand rupees monthly, in the article of cloth alone. Since that time the cloths termed sullums, baftaes, Shahzadpoor chintzes, and the red kurwa, have been most in demand.

The revenue settlement originally formed here, in the fusly or financial year 1216, underwent two subsequent revisions:

In 1216 (A D 1809-10) the terms were ......Rupees	2,590,800
1217	2,667,614
1218	2,682,084
1219 (*provisionally and in perpetuity*)	2,713,081

Although this settlement exhibits on the face of the account a progressive increase, it greatly falls short of the jumma or assessment to the land revenue which the district was expected to yield on its first acquisition. This has been attributed to mistaken

zeal on the first introduction of the British government, by immediately carrying the assessment to the highest point which the land was capable of sustaining. The fatal results of this inconsiderate arrangement, in the first instance, were remissions and irrecoverable balances to a large amount, and a sudden fall of the revenue at the formation of the second settlement. Added to these evils were numerous transfers of estates by public and private sale, amounting in some pergunnahs to a total devolution of the principal and most valuable portion of the district, into the hands of the actual tehsildars, or subordinate revenue officers. A great shock was in consequence sustained by the credit of government, from such persons having been allowed to pervert their official influence, and the old proprietors did not disguise their hopes of recovering their estates by the termination and subversion of the British predominance.

On the formation of a subsequent settlement measures were taken by the commissioners, Sir Edward Colebrooke and Mr. Dean, for cancelling a great number of these illicit and fraudulent transfers, leaving the parties, should they consider themselves wronged by this proceeding, to establish their claims in a court of justice: but the relief thus afforded bore a small proportion to the extent of the grievance. In the Allahabad district, the russud, or progressively increasing jumma, originated probably in the efforts of the local revenue officers to carry the assessment to the highest practicable pitch, having in their view the perpetuity of the land-tax at the expiration of the lease. It would, however, have proved more conducive to the prosperity of the country, and ultimately to the improvement of the revenue, if the landholder had at the commencement enjoyed the full benefit of a moderate and equal assessment, under the temporary settlements.

In every district subordinate to the British authority throughout Hindostan, the state of its police is the next important feature of its history, and its gaol the most imposing edifice. In the Allahabad jurisdiction, forty-six gang robberies were committed during the year 1811; but this offence did not generally prevail, being of much more frequent occurrence in the police stations, which are not situated within the Doab, but lie immediately on the borders of the Oude reserved territories, or adjacent to the then independent and turbulent state of Rewah. The two pergunnahs in which gang robberies are still most frequent are Secundra, situated on the north side of the Ganges, near the Nabob of Oude's dominions, and Barah, situated to the south of the Ganges, contiguous to the Rewah country. With respect to the first, it was clearly ascertained, that not one of the perpetrators lived in the Allahabad district, the atrocities having been committed by a banditti residing within the Oude boundaries; and in the last the depredators looked for an asylum and market for their booty in Rewah. In some instances these crimes were committed by ousted zemindars whose estates had been sold, and were actuated by malice against the purchasers. Although many applications had been made to the Rewah Raja for the apprehension of the criminals, no steps to effect that object were taken, or probably intended, by that potentate.

The pasees or village watchmen had long been suspected of not performing the functions of their office with either honesty or vigilance, and in 1812, were discovered to be a most numerous class of thieves in the district. In that year an affray of considerable magnitude took place respecting disputed boundaries, in which, although the land in dispute amounted to only four begahs (or one acre and a-third), 900 men belonging to different villages were engaged. On this occasion 130 were seized and sent to the magistrate for examination, but it may be much doubted

whether the seizure of so many persons is likely to restore good order, or whether so satisfactory a result can be expected, as shall compensate for the time the magistrate must devote to it, to the serious prejudice of his other duties.

In 1815, the inhabitants generally evinced great hostility to the introduction of the chokeydary system (an improved establishment of watchmen), and no respectable inhabitant came forward to receive sunnuds. The class denominated Pragwals, who perform the religious ceremonies at the junction of the great rivers, to the number of four or five thousand, shewed a determination to resist, threatened to cease to officiate, and withdraw altogether, which would have caused a loss to the government of the pilgrim revenue. Many other conspiracies to arrest the progress of the arrangements took place, but by patience and firmness were ultimately dissipated or suppressed. In 1815 this district was found to contain 1,655,106 small begahs in cultivation, assessed at 2,793,244 rupees, or one rupee eleven annas per begah, which revenue was realized. The number of begahs fit for cultivation was 395,012, and 1,109,777 were waste land. This settlement was made with 1811 engaging proprietors, and sixty-four farmers of revenue.—(*Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Tennant, Gutthrie, Fortescue, Lowther, &c.*)

ALLAHABAD.—A fortified town in the province of Allahabad, of which it is the capital. Lat. 25° 27′ N., lon. 81° 50′ E. The fort is placed at the distance of a quarter of a mile on a tongue of land, one side being washed by the Jumna, and the other approaching near the Ganges. It is lofty and extensive, and completely commands the navigation of the two rivers; indeed, there are probably few buildings of equal size in Europe. Next the two rivers it is defended by the old walls, beautifully built of polished free stone with semi-circular bastions at intervals, having cannon mounted. The third or land-side is perfectly regular, and very strong, consisting of three ravelins, two bastions, and a half bastion. The gateway is Grecian, and elegant. The government-house is spacious and cool, and has some large subterranean rooms overhanging the river. In the angle is a square, where Shah Allum, when he resided here, had his seraglio. The military cantonments stand at some distance from the fort and the houses occupied by the civil functionaries apart from both. To an European army a regular siege would be necessary, but to the tactics of a native army Allahabad is quite impregnable, and has in consequence been selected as the grand military depôt of the upper provinces. The most remarkable buildings in the neighbourhood are the serai and mausoleums of Sultan Khusro and his mother, the Chalees Sittoon (forty pillars) being no longer in existence. A short distance above the town the government has established a gunpowder manufactory. Up to 1803, the sum expended on the fortifications was twelve lacs of rupees.

The situation of Allahabad being alike adapted for the purposes of internal commerce and defence, must have early pointed it out as an eligible spot for the foundation of a city, and most probably it is the site of the ancient Palibothra. In modern times, from its geographical position, it appears well calculated to be the emporium of Oude, Bundelcund, and Bogalcund. It formerly ranked as a considerable mart for the cotton of the Deccan, and of the countries to the south of the Jumna: but owing to the extortions practised on the merchants by the native revenue officers of the Oude government, the trade gradually resorted to Mirzapoor, and abandoned this port although so eligibly situated. Nine-tenths of the present native buildings are of mud, raised on the foundations of more substantial brick edifices, which have long fallen to decay. In 1803 the inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison, were estimated at 20,000

persons. Much of the soil in the immediate vicinity consists of brick-dust, mortar, and broken pottery. The Ganges here is about a mile broad, and does not appear much augmented by the tribute of the Jumna, although the latter is 1,400 yards across.

By the Brahmins Allahabad is called Bhat Prayag, or by way of distinction, as it is the largest and most holy, is simply designated by the name of Prayaga. The other four Prayagas, or sacred confluences of rivers (called sungums in the south of India) are situated in Gurwal, at the junction of the Alacananda with other streams, and are named Devaprayaga, Rudraprayaga, Carnaprayaga, and Nandaprayaga. The prayaga of Allahabad owes its celebrity to the junction at this spot of the Ganges, Jumna, and Sereswati. There is no such river as the last now visible in the neighbourhood, but the Hindoos assert that it joins the other two underground, and that consequently by bathing here, the same religious merit is acquired as if the penitent had bathed in the whole three separately. When a pilgrim arrives here, he sits down on the brink of the river, and has his head and body shaved so that each hair may fall into the water, the sacred writings promising him one million of years residence in heaven for every hair thus deposited. After shaving he bathes, and the same day, or the next, performs the obsequies of his deceased ancestors. The tax accruing to government for permission to bathe is only three rupees each person; but a much greater expense is incurred in charity and gifts to the Brahmins, who are seen sitting by the river side. Many persons renounce life at this holy confluence, by going in a boat, after performance of certain solemnities, to the exact spot where the three rivers unite, where the devotee plunges into the stream, with three pots of water tied to his body. Occasionally also some lose their lives by the eagerness of the devotees to rush in and bathe at the most sanctified spot, at a precise period of the moon, when the expiation possesses the highest efficacy. The Bengalese usually perform the pilgrimages of Gaya, Benares, and Allahabad in one journey, and thereby acquire great merit in the estimation of their countrymen.

Abstract of receipts and disbursements for 1812-13, the number of pilgrims being 218,792.

Amount of collections	223,563
Repaid to the account of Dowlet Row Sindia	175
	223,388
Fines from persons attempting to bathe without licenses	1,085
	224,473
Charges of the establishment	3,407
Net receipts in 1812-13......	221,066

So great a congregation of people as met in 1812, at the melah or fair, had not occurred for twenty-eight years, on which account many precautions became necessary to preserve the lives of the pilgrims from the effects of their own inconsiderate ardour. In 1815-16 the gross collections were only 79,779 rupees; charges and commission, 6,726 rupees; net collections, 73,053 rupees.

Allahabad is the permanent station of the sudder commission, a body of judges, whose office is the same with regard to these provinces as that of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlet in Calcutta for the more eastern portions of the empire. Owing to the remoteness of the first, very great frauds and extortions had been committed by the native agents of the local courts, mostly Bengalese, who by the influence of their stations had engrossed much of the landed property. This commission has succeeded in recovering many of these fraudulent acquisitions to the rightful heir. This court makes circuits during the months that permit travelling, generally pitching their tents

near towns, and holding their courts under trees, an arrangement extremely agreeable to native prejudices, especially those of the lower classes, who always feel afraid and under a constraint in a house, particularly if furnished after the European fashion, where they can neither tell their story well or attend to what is going on.

The great emperor Acber was always partial to Allahabad, and was the founder of the modern city, intending it as a strong-hold to overawe the surrounding countries, for which purpose, from local circumstances, it was well adapted. In 1765 it was taken by the British army under Sir Robert Fletcher. Following the course of the river Allahabad is 820 miles from the sea, but the travelling distance is only 550 miles; from Benares, 53; from Lucknow, 127; from Agra, 296; and from Delhi 212 miles.—(*Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Ward, Tennant, Fullarton, Rennell, &c.*)

Allambady.—A town in the Mysore province, seventy-four miles E.S.E. from Seringapatam.

Alland.—A town in the province of Beeder, twenty-three miles N. by W. from Calberga, lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 76° 41′ E.

Allas (*Straits of*).—This channel separates the large island of Sumbhawa from Lombook Isle, and by the natives is called Gilleesee. In extent it is about forty-five miles, and forms the safest and most convenient passage to the east of Java through the Sunda chain of islands. On each side there are soundings where ships may anchor with moderate tides when necessary, and the plantations and villages on the Lambook shore, which is low land, afford ample supplies of refreshment.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Allestar.—A populous town in the peninsula of Malacca four hours pull up the Queda river, situated two or three leagues up a river, and in 1785 the residence of the king. In 1823 it contained 2,000 houses; the inhabitants consisted of Chuleas, Malays, and Chinese, the latter having a temple.—(*Dalrymple, Haensel, Anderson, &c.*)

Allowalla.—A petty Seik state in the north-eastern quarter of the province of Delhi, which in 1824 was held by Futteh Singh, a powerful chief, much in favour with Runjeet Singh of Lahore, and possessing lands on both sides of the Sutuleje.

Allumparva.—A small town in the Carnatic, twenty-five miles N. by E. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 15′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E. It was taken from the French by Col. Coote in 1760.—(*Orme, &c.*)

Ally (*or Ally Mohun*).—A town and small principality in the province of Malwa, district of Rath, situated about twelve miles north of the Nerbudda, lat. 22° 5′ N., lon. 74° 18′ E. In 1820 this petty state comprehended 176 towns and villages, which yielded a gross revenue of 30,000 rupees. The jungles of Ally and Mohun are wild, thinly inhabited, and extremely difficult to penetrate, on account of the badness of the roads and scarcity of water, and were formerly considered one of the defences of the adjacent province of Gujerat. —(*Malcolm, Burr, &c.*)

Allygunge (*Aligang*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, forty miles N.N.E. from the town of Purneah; lat. 26° 16′ N., lon. 87° 38′ E.

Almora.—The modern capital of Kumaon, built on the ridge of a mountain 5,337 feet above the level of the sea, ninety miles N. by E. from the city of Bareilly, and about 106 miles travelling distance N.E. from Moradabad, by the route of the Bamouree pass and Rampoor; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

This is a compactly-built town, consisting of a single paved street, fifty feet in width, three-fourths of a mile long, crowning the sharp ridge of a mountain, and is by far the most considerable town, indeed

the only considerable one, in the newly-acquired British possessions in northern Hindostan. The houses are built of stone, slated, and generally two, some three stories high, the ground-floors occupied as shops, and open in front, while the upper stories are faced with a frame-work of wood, occasionally carved and painted, supported on the projecting side walls below. The population of Almora does not correspond with its external appearance, at least in 1819, many of the largest dwellings were without any ascertained or *boná fide* proprietor, and had fallen into the hands of persons who had no just claim to them. Small stacks of straw are piled up on the sloping roofs as winter provender for the cattle.

The old Gorkha citadel, built of stone, stands on a commanding point of the ridge at the eastern extremity, and several martello towers have been erected on peaks to the eastward. A new citadel, named Fort Moira, in the form of a parallelogram with six bastions, has been constructed on a small eminence at the western extremity of the town. All these defences, however, being built of the loose micaceous schistus, which composes the entire hill of Almora, and most others in its vicinity, their duration is not likely to be remarkable: indeed, in 1820, a party of sappers and miners were sent to destroy the works and dismantle the fortress. The surrounding country is remarkably bleak and naked, scarcely a tree being seen within a circuit of four miles from the walls. Almora was acquired by the Gorkhas in 1790, who were expelled by the British in 1815, at which date the inhabitants were mostly foreigners, emigrants from the low lands.—(*Fullarton, Raper, F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Aloor.—A large irregular village in the Carnatic, district of Nellore, seventeen miles N.W. from the town of Nellore, lat. 14° 40′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E. In the vicinity there is a fine reservoir, and a small bungalow, where European travellers may be accommodated.

Alote.—A small town and pergunnah in the province of Malwa, belonging to the Raja of Dewass, about twenty-one miles distant from Mahidpoor, lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E. In 1820 the town contained 400, and the pergunnah 2,316 houses, of which forty-seven were inhabited by Mahomedans, and 2,269 by Hindoos; total population 11,580 souls. —(*Malcolm, &c*)

Alumchun.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-two miles N.W. from the city of Allahabad, lat. 25° 34′ N., lon. 81° 31′ E.

Alumpoor.—A town belonging to Holcar, in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles N.E. from Ditteah, lat. 26° 3′ N., lon. 78° 45′ E.

Alvar (*Alur or Macherry*).—A principality in upper Hindostan, mostly situated in the north-western quarter of the Agra province, between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. In the Mahomedan histories it is occasionally named Mewat, and its inhabitants Mewaties, although this appellation ought to have been restricted to the more thievish portion of them. Alvar proper, is a hilly and woody tract, lying on the south-west of Delhi, and to the north-west of Agra, confining the low country along the western side of the river Jumna. Although this country is situated in the centre of upper Hindostan, and within twenty-five miles of Delhi, its inhabitants have always been described as singularly savage and brutal, and robbers by profession, never to be reformed or subdued. In this last capacity, under the name of Mewaties, they were formerly taken into the pay of the native chiefs, on account of their expertness in the arts of desolation, for the purpose of more effectually ravaging any country which happened to be the seat of war.

In modern times a new potentate has arisen, named the Macherry Raja, within whose sway Alvar and several

adjacent districts, equal to about 3,000 square miles, are now comprehended, but greatly intermingled with those belonging to the British government, and to contiguous native chiefs. The chief towns in his dominions are Alvar, Macherry, Tejarah, Rajghur, and Alinuggur or Ghosauly. Macherry gives its name to the principality, and its chief is thence called the Macherry Raja, but Alvar or Aloor is the real capital. Tejarah was formerly the capital of Mewat, and, like all other old cities, had several pergunnahs annexed to it. It is now in ruins, but the fort is kept in repair to curb the depredations of the Mewaties. Ghosauly is a large town, whose fields are irrigated by water-conduits from the Laswary river. Six miles west of that town a new fort has been erected by the Raja, named Govindghur.

The Laswary river has its source in the Macherry country, about four miles west of Niranpoor, from whence it proceeds through Acberpoor ghaut, by Mahoor and Bambolee to Laswary town. Near Malpoor an embankment has been constructed across the bed of the river, and the current is conducted by numerous water-courses to the interior of the Raja's country. The former direction of the Laswary stream was by Neano and Ketwaree, through the Ploundah pass to Koh, where it was lost; but it now seldom passes Deeg, and could never, except during uncommonly heavy rains, have reached Bhurtpoor. In November 1806, the stream of the Laswary was only one foot deep, and the Macherry Raja being desirous of monopolizing the whole, without allowing any to proceed to the Bhurtpoor country, a dispute ensued, which could only be amicably adjusted by the interference of the British government. Considering how hilly a large proportion of the Macherry territories are, they are tolerably well cultivated.

Row Raja Pertaub Singh, the father of the Raja who reigned in 1805, was a subject of the Jeypoor Raja's, and his manager at Macherry about the year 1780. He subsequently revolted from his master, and obtained a grant of lands in the Jeypoor country from Nudjiff Khan, with the title of Row Raja. When Nudjiff Khan was engaged in a war with the Bhurtpoor chief, Pertaub Singh wrested Alvar, the present capital, and other districts, from the Bhurtpoor state, and added them to his own. Some time after he quarrelled with his patron Nudjiff Khan, and was deprived of all his possessions except the fortress of Luchmenghur, where he was besieged by Nudjiff Khan, but saved by the approach of the rainy season; and the latter, whose hands were always full of business, being called elsewhere, Pertaub Singh remained in the government. After that period he maintained his station by temporizing with the strongest party. In 1805 his revenues were estimated at seven lacks of rupees, and it was then said he discouraged cultivation that his country might present fewer temptations to invaders, and to augment its difficulties, built several forts. Latterly his policy has been quite the reverse, for in 1823 his country presented a most flourishing appearance.

In 1803, a treaty of alliance was concluded by Lord Lake, on the part of the British government, with the Macherry Raja, by the conditions of which he was taken under its protection on the usual terms, with which he seemed well satisfied, as throughout the hazardous and energetic campaign of 1804 he continued faithful; for which, in 1805, he was rewarded by a considerable addition of territory, mostly resumed from the Bhurtpoor Raja as a punishment for his treachery.

The second range of mountains, commencing on the west of Padshapoor to the Acberpoor Ghaut, beyond Alvar, is inhabited by Mewaties. Tejarah was the ancient capital of the Mewat country, which contained many pergunnahs, equivalent to an area of about 1,952 square miles. Of this space, in 1807, about 465 belonged to the British, 263 to Ahmed

Buksh Khan, 304 to the Bhurtpoor Raja, and 921 to the Raja of Macherry. On account of the turbulent disposition of the inhabitants, the influence of any chief over them was very feeble, and the authority of the Macherry Raja was but little attended to. In 1807, the predatory incursions of the Mewaties into the British territories became so daring and frequent, that no person could stir out of the military cantonments at Rewary without an escort, and the high road from Delhi and Rewary was no longer practicable for the merchant or traveller unless protected by a strong guard. A band of these marauders, here named Cozauks, had the boldness to attack the town of Rewary, although within three miles of the military cantonments, where three battalions of infantry were usually stationed; but the plunderers being all mounted, infantry, however active, could not prevent their escape.

Owing to the physical nature of the Mewat country, jungly, hilly, and abounding with defiles and fastnesses, the extirpation of these was likely to be a work of great difficulty, if at all practicable. It became, therefore, extremely desirable to endeavour to eradicate the evil by measures of a conciliatory nature; for these people, although from time immemorial addicted to robbery and habits of plunder, were known to be generally faithful when relied on and trusted. During the power of the Delhi throne, and after its decline, the only measures adopted to curb the Mewaties, were the utmost severity, harshness, and cruelty. In order to distress them, they were prohibited from cultivating the vallies where alone they could procure food, and their implements of husbandry were seized and destroyed. They were also, when apprehended, subjected to the most cruel punishments, and frequently experienced the doom of being immured alive between four walls, a practice which prevailed greatly during the Gallo-Maharatta power; but with such little effect, that while these districts were under the charge of M. Perron, he maintained in them for five months of the year from two to five battalions of his troops, besides sebundies, a species of local militia. This system of terror, as might have been expected, wholly failed: for notwithstanding the impending tortures that threatened them, the Mewaty outrages continued to increase, and the peaceful part of the community were kept in a state of unceasing alarm and anxiety. In 1807 a correspondence was opened with some of their chiefs by Mr. Seton, then resident at Delhi, and some measures of a mild, conciliatory nature adopted towards the Mewaties, which, although they did not entirely extinguish, so much repressed their habits of rapine, that we now comparatively hear but little of them.

In 1808, a dispute arose between the Rajas of Bhurtpoor and Macherry relative to an embankment maintained in the country of the latter, which prevented the flowing of the Laswary river into the country of the former, and consequently impeded the cultivation of certain lands belonging to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, which depended on that source for irrigation. On this occasion, the British government, as the friend of both parties, interfered, and required the Macherry Raja to open the embankment, in conformity with his engagement in 1805.

In 1811, the reigning Raja of Macherry was afflicted with a mental derangement, which after some time subsided, but was after a short period succeeded by a most unfortunate disposition to persecute his Mahomedan subjects, manifested by the most wanton acts of cruelty and outrage. The resident at Delhi, on hearing of these proceedings, adverting to the political relations subsisting between the Raja and the British government, thought it his duty to address several letters of expostulation on the subject to the Raja; but these not having the desired effect, Lord Minto, then governor-general, was obliged to interfere. Confidential persons (natives) were in consequence despatched

to Alvar, to ascertain the real condition of the Raja's mind, which was apprehended to be still not quite free from insanity. From their researches it appeared that certain Mahomedan devotees had been mutilated by the Raja's order, and that several tombs and places of worship had been destroyed, which act this chief attempted to justify by recriminating on the Mahomedans, that they had destroyed Hindoo images and temples. After mutilating these devotees, the Raja was siezed with a desire, no less savage than curious, of sending their noses and ears to Ahmed Buksh Khan, the chief of Ferozepoor, a most meritorious partizan of the British government. who on receipt of the pot containing the fragments, very properly forwarded it to the British resident at Delhi Besides this notable exploit, having demolished a number of the most revered Mahomedan tombs, he loaded a multitude of asses and bullocks with the bones and ashes, had them transported out of his country, and ordered the sacred stones of the mosques near Alvar to be smeared with oil and sindhoor.

The British interposition on this occasion was exerted in so judicious a manner, that the Raja was induced to revert to the unqualified toleration existing in his country before the perpetration of the late acts of violence. It was, however, determined that the Raja's general conduct should be observed, as it concerned the general interests of humanity, as well as the credit of the British government, to prevent the repetition of such barbarities, which were calculated to excite a spirit of sanguinary animosity between the Mahomedans and Hindoos, and create disturbances of all others the most liable to contagion, and in their result the most difficult to quell. The interference on this occasion was authorized, both by the great extent of country that had been bestowed on the Macherry Raja by the British government, and by the continuance of its powerful protection, which had preserved his dominions from the dreadful evils that had befallen the neighbouring principalities of Jeypoor and Joudpoor. As illustrative of native politics it may be mentioned, that along with the confidential agents, it was necessary to send an emissary well acquainted with the Raja's person, as otherwise his ministers, with the view of concealing his derangement, might have recourse to the artifice of substituting some other individual, not unlike him in stature and general appearance, the success of which would be favoured by the darkness of the apartment.

The above acts of religious frenzy were not the only measures which brought the intellectual restoration of the Raja under suspicion; for towards the end of the same year, he had the gratuitous folly to become security to the Patan chief, Mahomed Shah Khan, on the part of Khooshaly Ram (formerly prime minister to the Raja of Jeypoor) for the payment of one and a half lacks of rupees per month, on account of a body of troops, to be furnished by the former to the latter for the service of the Jeypoor state, until the expelled minister (Khooshaly Ram) should be again placed at the head of affairs. This transaction was totally incompatible with the spirit of the relations subsisting between the British government and the state of Macherry, by the conditions of which the British government, having guaranteed the integrity of the Macherry dominions, the latter was placed in a state of dependence, and virtually precluded from interfering in the concerns of other chiefs and states, unless with the consent of the protecting power. For it appeared evident, that if the Raja were at liberty to contract engagements with foreign powers, or concern himself in their disputes and intrigues, the British government might be involved in serious political altercations, and eventually placed in a hostile attitude by the uncontrolled acts of the Raja. Situated as the parties were, the duty of protection necessarily implied a right of control over all proceedings of the

protected party which might have a tendency to compel the active exercise of that duty; and it was wholly inconsistent with the existing political relations, that a dependent state should be at liberty to form engagements with other powers, and to transfer the guarantee of the protecting power to concerns in which it had not participated.

By this act of the Raja, he pledged the security of the British government to the agreement between Khooshaly Ram and Mahomed Shah Khan, thereby rendering it an instrument of public evil, and of injustice to a friendly state, or forced it to engage in a cause of doubtful equity and unprofitable exertion, since in the event of the Raja's disinclination or inability to fulfil the obligations he had entered into (a circumstance not less probable than the failure of Khooshaly Ram in the performance of his engagement), the Patan chief would naturally be disposed to enforce the satisfaction of his claim. In this event the interference of the British government would become necessary, either to compel the payment of the money, or to protect the Raja against the arms of the claimant, and it would thus have been compelled, through the folly of the Raja, either to contribute to the support of a military Patan adventurer, aiming at the subjugation of a friendly state, or to employ its forces in a cause of dubious justice, where its interests were in no manner concerned.

This preposterous engagement, as might have been foreseen, was subsequently broken, and the agent of Mahomed Shah Khan, residing at Delhi, appealed to the resident for the recovery of the sum due to his master for the time that had elapsed; but the application was immediately rejected, and the chief informed, that the original engagement was altogether incompatible with the political relations subsisting between the Macherry Raja and the British government. With the view also of preventing in future a similar misconception of his duties, and to render more clear the treaty of 1803, a positive engagement was procured from the Raja, in 1812, binding himself not to enter into negociations, or conclude arrangements of any kind with foreign powers, without the knowledge and consent of the British government previously obtained. In times still more recent, the Raja, finding himself in the vicinity of the Jeypoor state, which was torn by civil faction and external warfare, endeavoured to avail himself of its misfortunes, and to aggrandize himself at its expense. He in consequence seized on some forts and villages; but the British government interfered, and obliged the intruder to restore what he had taken; and symptoms of hesitation appearing, he was fined for delaying instant obdience to the order.—(*Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, Rennell, &c.*)

Alvar (*Alor*).—A large town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the Macherry Raja's dominions; lat. 27° 44′ N., lon. 76° 32′ E., seventy-five miles S.S.W. from Delhi.

This place is situated at the base of a steep hill, and is strongly fortified, and on the summit of the hill, about 1,200 feet high, is a fortress which contains several tanks. To the south of the town there is a small shallow jeel. The Macherry Raja generally resides here, but his family at Rajghur, a strong-hold situated at the re-entering angle of some mountains, the top of which is also fortified. The adjacent hills and peaks do not exceed 1,000 feet in height.—(*Lieut. White, James Fraser, &c.*)

Alvarcoil.—A town in the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, sixty-nine miles N.E. from Cape Comorin, lat. 8° 51′ N., lon. 78° 14′ E.

Amain.—A town in the Agra province south of the Chumbul, forty-one miles E. from Gualior; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

Amanapoor.—A considerable military station in the island of Ceylon, twelve miles travelling distance from

Candy; lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. The fort here stands on the top of a precipitous hill 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and at its base are the cantonments, barracks, village, and bazar.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Amarapura (*the city of immortals*), a city of India beyond the Ganges, and during the reign of Minderajee Praw the capital of the Birman empire; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 96° 7′ E. It stands on the banks of a deep and extensive lake, about seven miles long by one and a half broad; when filled by the periodical rains, the lake on one side, and the river on the other, form a dry peninsula, on which the city is placed. On entering the lake when the floods are at the highest, the number and variety of the boats, the great expanse of water, with the lofty surrounding hills, present an extraordinary sight to a stranger.

The fort of Amarapura is an exact square. There are four principal gates, one in each face; and there is also a smaller gate on each side of the great gate, equidistant between it and the angle of the fort, comprising twelve gates in all. At each angle of the fort there is a large quadrangular bastion, which projects considerably; there are also eleven smaller bastions on each side, including those over the gateway. Between each of these bastions is a curtain, extending 200 yards in length; from which calculation it results that a side of the fort occupies 2,400 yards. The ditch of the fort is wide, and faced with brick; the passage across is over a causeway, formed by a mound of earth, and defended by retrenchments. The rampart, faced by a wall of brick, is about twenty feet high, exclusive of the parapet, which has embrasures for cannon and apertures for muskets; the body of the ramparts is composed of earth, sustained within and externally by strong walls. Small demi-bastions project at regular distances; the gates are massive, and guarded by cannon. This fortress, considered as an eastern fortification, is respectable, but insufficient to resist the approaches of an enemy skilled in artillery tactics. From the height and solidity of the wall the Burmese consider it impregnable, although a battery of half a dozen well-served cannon would breach it in a few hours. The southern face of the fort is washed, during the rainy season, by the waters of the lake, and the houses of the city extend along the bank as far as the extreme point of land.

In Amarapura there are but few houses of brick and mortar, and these belong to members of the royal family. The dwellings of the chief persons are surrounded by a wooden enclosure, and all houses whatever are covered with tiles, and have in the ridge of the roof earthen pots filled with water, in readiness to be broken should fire occur. The splendour of the religious buildings is very striking, owing to the unbounded expenditure of gilding which is applied to the outside of the roofs as well as within, and must absorb much bullion. The gold leaf used is exceedingly pure, and bears exposure to the air for a long time without suffering injury. These edifices being generally composed of wood and other perishable materials, their existence is not of long duration. Contiguous to the fort is a small street, formerly entirely occupied by shops of silversmiths, who exposed their ware in the open balcony, and displayed a great variety of Birman utensils; but when visited by Captain Canning, in 1810, the greater part of these shops had disappeared, and on the 28th March of that year the entire city and fort, including all the palaces and about 20,000 houses, were destroyed by fire. The pudigaut or royal library is situated in the northwest angle of the fort, in the centre of a court paved with broad flags. The books are kept in wooden chests curiously ornamented, about 100 in number, and well filled. The greater part concern divinity; but history, music, medicine, painting, romance, and mythological fable have also their separate volumes. Across the lake

there are extensive fields of wheat, which grain in 1795 was sold in the city at the rate of one tical (2s. 6d.) for fifty-six pounds weight, and equal in quality to the finest in England.

Amarapura is subdivided into four distinct subordinate jurisdictions, in each of which a Maywoon presides. This officer, who in the provinces is a viceroy, in the capital performs the functions of a mayor, and holds a civil and criminal court of justice. In capital cases, he transmits the evidence with his opinion in writing to the lotoo, or grand chamber of consultation, where the council of state assembles. There are regularly established lawyers, who conduct causes and plead before the lotoo, for which their usual fee is sixteen shillings.

This city was founded by the Burmese monarch Minderajee Praw so recently as 1783, about six miles east of Ava, the ancient capital; but was latterly abandoned by him through some unaccountable caprice, for some sterile sand-banks seven miles further up the stream of the Irawady. Buildings in this country are wholly composed of wood and bamboos, and the river presenting convenient water carriage, a capital is soon created, and increases with incredible rapidity. About A.D. 1800, its population was estimated by Captain Cox at 175,000, and the houses from 20,000 to 25,000; but the seat of government having been transferred back to Ava in 1819, by the present king, its population and importance must have diminished in proportion. Indeed the embassy in 1827 did not estimate its inhabitants at more than 30,000 persons.

Every facility being supposed, a communication may be held between the British frontier and the capital of Ava in twelve or fourteen days, viz. to Shembeghewn, two days; thence to Arracan, eight days; total twelve days. There is another road from Arracan to the Ava territories, which branches off at Padang, a town situated on the Irawady about ten days' journey above Rangoon.—(*Symes, Cox, Canning, Crawfurd, &c.*)

AMARAVATI (*or Caroor river*).—A small river that flows past the town and fortress of Caroor in the Coimbatoor province, and after a short course joins the Cavery about ten miles below Caroor. Amaravati is also the name of many other rivers throughout Hindostan.

AMBAHGHAUT.—A pass from the Concan province, on the west coast up the Western Ghauts, or chain of mountains, to the interior; lat. 17° 1′ N., lon. 73° 50′ E.

AMBAGHUR.—A fort in the province of Gundwana, situated on a hill, at the base of which is the town, and surrounded by jungle to a considerable distance; but on the south and east sides, in its immediate vicinity, there is a cultivated valley half a mile broad. It was captured without bloodshed in 1818.

The Golur and Holur tribes are numerous in the districts east of Nagpoor, but have their abodes mostly in the Puttar, a stony portion of Ambaghur, and in the jungles of Rampyle and Sahangurry. They are a thievish plundering tribe, but perfectly under the control of their naiks or chiefs, and are never troublesome when the latter are conciliated. They speak the Canarese language, but have no tradition respecting their original expatriation.—(*Jenkins, Blacker, &c.*)

AMBAHLAH (*Ambalaya*).—The capital of a small Seik state in the province of Delhi, about 115 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi, lat. 30° 19′ N., lon. 76° 44′ E.

AMBER (*or Ambheer*).—The ancient capital of the Jeypoor territories, until Mirza Raja Jeysingh, in the reign of Aurengzebe, built the city of Jeypoor, since which period the principality takes that name also. Lat. 26° 57′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E., five miles N. by E. from Jeypoor.

The site of this place is singularly romantic, for it stands on the brink of a small lake, surrounded on all sides by steep mountains. The palace of the Rajahs is still in good preservation, and contains some noble halls,

built on the very face of the precipice immediately overhanging the lake. The interior of the old palace contains one very noble hall of audience, a small garden with fountains, and a long succession of passages, cloisters, alcoves, and small intricate apartments, many of them extremely beautiful, and enjoying from the windows, balconies, and terraces, a most striking prospect. The carving in stone and marble, the inlaid flowers and ornaments, in some of these apartments are equal to those of Delhi and Agra, and only surpassed by the beauties of the Tauje Mahal. A great use has been made of stained glass, which from the inaccessible height of the windows has remained in good preservation Higher up is the castle with high towers, and battlements, with a few ornamented windows, many narrow loop-holes, and one tall minaret rising above the whole. The interior is not shewn to Europeans, it having formerly been the depôt for the public treasure, and is still occasionally used as a state prison.

It is approached by a steep winding ascent cut in the rock, and passing under three successive gateways. The heights above are crowned with towers and battlements; and the royal gardens occupy a small island in the lake and part of the eastern bank. The rest of the narrow space between the eastern margin of the lake is crowded with buildings of the ancient city. The interior is now ruinous and nearly depopulated; but its lofty picturesque pagodas, with porticoes guarded by marble elephants, its great bowlee, its arches and pavilions, still preserve the recollection of its former grandeur. There are two Jain temples here, one apparently quite new. The road from Jeypoor to Amber, until the foot of the mountain that separates the two vallies is reached, presents an almost uninterrupted succession of villas, gardens, tanks, Hindoo monuments, and other religious edifices.—(*Fullarton, Franklin, Hunter, &c.*)

AMBLOO.—A small island of about fifteen miles circumference in the Eastern seas, situated at the south-eastern extremity of Booro Isle, lat. 3° 55′ S., lon. 127° E. This island is but thinly inhabited, having been much infested by the depredations of the mop-headed Papuas from New Guinea, who plundered it in the year 1765, and carried off many of its natives. Beautiful shells are found on the shores of Ambloo.—(*Stavorinus, Bougainville, &c.*)

AMBONG.—A large and commodious harbour on the north-west coast of Borneo, having great depth of water, with a button-like island in the centre. Ships keeping this island on the right hand side, will come into a fine harbour on the south side, close to some salt-houses. Lat. 6° 14′ N., lon. 116° 25′ E.

AMBOOR.—A town in the Carnatic province bordering on the Balaghaut, 108 miles W.S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 49′ N., lon. 78° 46′ E. The Amboor division is comprised within a range of hills of moderate height. The river Palaur, declining from its apparent southerly direction, enters this tract about three miles from the eastward, and washes the Amboor pettah, distant three miles to the southward of the fort. The skirts of the hills are covered with palmyra and date trees, from the produce of which a considerable quantity of coarse sugar is made. The territory is fertilized by numerous rills of water, conducted from the river along the margin of the heights, as a supply to the rice fields, the tobacco, cocoa-nut, and mangoe plantations. In the hot weather in the low country the thermometer under the cover of a tent rises to 100° Fahrenheit, and exposed to the rays of the sun, to 120°.

The village of Amboor is neat and regularly built; its inhabitants are very industrious, and make a considerable quantity of castor-oil, which they export. On the left side of it is a lofty isolated mountain, on which formerly stood a fort almost impregnable by nature. The upper works have been destroyed since it came

into the possession of the British, and the lower is a place of confinement for malefactors. The plain on the top is of sufficient extent to have rendered its cultivation an object of importance, and on it are two tanks near to where the barracks formerly stood. The view from hence is noble and extensive, and the air cool in comparison with that below. This district suffered greatly from Hyder's different invasions of what we call the Carnatic, from which it has not yet altogether recovered. Near Amboor the Barramahal ends, and the Arcot territories commence. — (*Martine, Salt, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Ambora.—A town in the province of Gundwana, forty-one miles E. by S. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

Amboyna (*Ambun*)—An island in the eastern seas lying off the S.W. coast of the island of Ceram, lat. 3° 40′ N., lon. 128° 15′ E. In length it may be estimated at thirty-two miles, by ten the average breadth. The name is a Malay word signifying dew. On the S.W. Amboyna is indented by a deep bay, by which it is divided into two limbs or peninsulas, connected together by a very narrow isthmus. Both of these are mountainous, and almost overgrown with trees and underwood, between which at intervals some clove trees are cultivated. The soil is mostly a reddish clay; but in the vallies where there are not any rocks it is darker coloured, and mixed with sand. Many of the hills yield sulphur, with which mineral their surface is encrusted.

This island produces all the common tropical fruits and vegetables, and likewise the cajeput tree, from which the hot and strong oil called cajeput oil is distilled. The clove-bark tree or *laurus sassafras*, and the teak tree, are also found here, but the latter in small quantities, building timber being mostly imported from Java. Although the quantity is not great, the variety of woods is infinite. Valentyn enumerates different species of the ebony tree, the iron tree, the casuarina, the wild clove, the samarnatree (a bastard sort of teak), and the nani tree, which the Chinese use for anchors and rudders. He also mentions that, in 1682, Rumphius (the author of the Hortus Amboinensis) had a cabinet inlaid with 400 choice and handsome woods, all the produce of the island, which he presented to Cosmo, the third Duke of Tuscany.

The clove tree resembles a large pear tree from twenty to forty feet high. At nine years of age it yields cloves, and continues to bear to about 100 years, October and November being the usual period of the clove crop, when from two to three pounds are generally procured from each tree. Indigo of a superior quality is produced in Amboyna, but not in large quantities. The sago tree is found in abundance, and is a principal article of food. An ordinary tree, from its twelfth to its twentieth year, when cut down will yield 350 pounds of sago. They are seven years arriving at full growth, and last about thirty. The woods here swarm with deer and wild hogs, the flesh of which is used by the natives, fresh, salted, and dried. The domestic animals are buffaloes, cows, horses, sheep, goats, and swine. The last only are aboriginal, the others having been imported by the Portuguese and Dutch from Java, Celebes, and the south-western isles. There are no beasts of prey on the island, but plenty of snakes.

The monsoons are exactly the contrary here to what they are along the islands of Java, Borneo, Bali, Lumbhook, and Sumbhava. When at these the fine season prevails, it is the reverse at Amboyna, Ceram, Banda, the east coast of Celebes, and the adjacent seas. The difference appears to commence to the eastward of the straits of Salayer, which are about lon. 120° 30′ E. The currents are not regular at Amboyna, neither has the moon any constant or equal influence on the tides, high and low water sometimes occurring once, sometimes twice in twenty-four hours, the rise being from six to nine feet.

Fort Victoria is situated on the S.E. side of the island, and is an irregular hexagon, with a ditch and covered way on the land side, and a horn-work towards the sea; but it is commanded by two heights within 700 and 1,200 yards distance, the difficulty of anchoring in the bay constituting the chief strength of the island. The town of Amboyna is clean, neatly and regularly built, and well supplied with water. The west end is inhabited by Chinese, and the south end by Europeans, near to which is the tomb of Rumphius. On account of the frequency of earthquakes, the houses seldom exceed one story in height. The inhabitants are the Horaforas or aborigines, the Amboynese, Europeans, and Chinese; but of the first there are now very few remaining. The Amboynese were converted to the Mahomedan faith about A.D. 1515; the Portuguese subsequently converted a number of them to the Roman Catholic religion, and the Dutch to the Calvanistic, but the greater proportion still remain Mahomedans. The Christians, however, evidently excel the other sects of Amboynese, both as to morals and intelligence, and notwithstanding all the oppression they have endured, are a peaceful inoffensive race. In the Dutch armies they rank above their other Asiatic troops, and receive pay and equipments in proportion. The principal Amboynese Christians still bear Portuguese names, but their number is not great. The Chinese are not so numerous in proportion as on the other islands, yet they are the only strangers permitted to settle here by the Dutch. They keep shops, sell provisions, and intermarry with each other. One junk of 500 tons arrives from China annually.

Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese in A.D. 1515, but was not taken possession of until 1564, and was conquered from them by the Dutch about A.D. 1607. In 1546, when St. Francis Xavier was at Amboyna, he observed the inhabitants then beginning to learn to write from the Arabians. At present they speak the Malay language. In 1622, the famous or rather infamous Amboyna massacre took place; in 1796 it was captured by the British, when it was found to contain 45,252 inhabitants, of which number 17,813 were Protestants; the rest Mahommedans, except the Chinese and slaves. It was restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801, recaptured in 1810, and again finally restored after the peace of Paris in 1814.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, 2 Reg., Bruce, Marsden, Crawfurd, &c.*)

AMEERGHUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-two miles N.W. from Pattialah; lat. 30° 28′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E.

AMEER KHAN.—See SERONGE.

AMERKOTE. (*Amara-cata, the fort of the immortals.*)—A town on the confines of Sinde, about eighty-five miles E. of the Indus, and of Hyderabad the capital of that province, lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 69° 49′ E. This place was formerly the capital of an independent principality named Dhat, held by the Jada Rajpoots, but being situated on the confines of Joudpoor and Sinde, soon became an object of contention between the two states. In 1813 it had been recently captured by the Ameers. The surrounding country is arid, sterile, and unproductive, taxes on merchandise, and extortions from travellers, being the only sources of revenue. The Emperor Humayoon, after his expulsion from Hindostan by Shere Shah the Afghan, in his extreme distress sought refuge in the desert with the Rajah of Amerkote; and here the Emperor Acber was born, A.D. 1541.—(*Macmurdo, Pottinger, MSS., &c.*)

AMHERST.—The town of Martaban being restored to the Burmese, under the provisions of the treaty of 1826, it became expedient to possess a station on the south bank of the Saluen river, as a military post, commercial establishment, and asylum to the numerous refugees preparing

to migrate from the Burmese dominions. A recess north of Cape Kyar Kami was selected for this purpose, the British flag hoisted on the 5th April 1826, and the spot (then covered with jungle and fruit trees) having no native name, was called Amherst. Lat. 16° 5′ N., lon. 97° 25′ E.

This place stands in the north-east angle of the gulf of Martaban, twenty-eight miles below the town of that name, on a triangular peninsula, containing an area of about four square miles, the apex of the promontory (commanding both town and harbour) from twenty-five to thirty feet high, the rest about ten feet above high-water mark spring tides, except a narrow mangrove belt, intended for the native quarter. Off Amherst promontory, on a detached rock, is the Buddhist temple of Kyarkami. The apex and the most elevated portion are reserved for public purposes, such as fortifications, the church, governor's house, court of justice, &c.; the lowest grounds are assigned to the natives, being most congenial to their habits; the higher grounds to the European and Chinese quarters, to be built of durable materials. The military cantonments are fixed on a spot about one mile and a half from the town, dry, level, and elevated.

Up to the 7th May 1826, of 431 lots marked out, 217 had been given away to Europeans, Chinese, Portuguese, and others, besides lands assigned, to Burmese and Peguers; temporary cantonments had also then been constructed, the streets designated by English names, such as Bayley Street, Harington Street, &c. Estimating the native town at only 2,000 houses, the quit rents within a year would amount to 7,322 Madras rupees, annually increasing, a great accession of inhabitants being expected, so that its own resources would in a few years defray the civil and military disbursements. From its frontier situation Amherst must become the chief station of the south-eastern Burmese conquered provinces. In January 1827 it contained 1,600 inhabitants.

The harbour is spacious and secure, with three fathoms at low water neap tides, and ships may lie within 100 yards of the shore; the steam boat lay within fifty. Rise and fall of the tide about nineteen feet; flow of the tide about six miles an hour, but without any bore, and on the whole well adapted for wet docks. Owing to its geographical position, the harbour is still as a lake for two hours before and two after high water, permitting an easy communication by boats with the shore. A remarkably noble and beautiful plant, named Amherstia, after Lady Amherst, has recently been discovered in this neighbourhood. Only two trees of it are known to exist, and these were found in the garden of a Buddhist monastery on the banks of the Saluen river. A species of oak also grows to a great size in the vicinity of this town, and extensive forests of teak timber further inland up the river Attran. Good water is found every where within six feet of the surface.

As a depôt from which the Burmese, Chinese, Shans, and other ultra-Gangetic nations may be supplied with the commodities of Britain and Hindostan, Amherst promises to be a settlement of the first importance. The short run between it and Rangoon well suit the small coasting trading boats, and there is said to be a safe and practicable route to the interior of Ava and the Shan country, through the town and province of Tongho. From Amherst opium may be introduced to the very centre of Ava, Siam, Laos, and through the latter into China. Prior to 1827, several chests had been imported and sold.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Capt. Studdert, &c.*)

Amherst Harbour.—A harbour thus named in the province of Arracan, situated between the island of Ramree, towards the southern extremity, and the main-land; lat. 18° 47′ N. lon. 93° 50′ E.

Amjerah (*or Amjherva*).—A small

town in Malwa, belonging to Sindia, and the head of a district containing 175 villages. Lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E., fifty-six miles S.W. from Oojein, and twelve W. of Dhar. It stands in an extensive valley, which expands towards the north, and is 1890 feet above the level of the sea. In 1820 it contained 500 houses, with good bazars plentifully supplied. Amjerah is tributary to Sindia, to whom the chief (a Rhatore Rajpoot) pays 35,000 rupees per annum; his country, however, under proper management, is capable of yielding three times that amount. In 1824 the Amjerah gross revenues were expected to reach one lack of rupees. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Ammalapoor.—A town in the Northern Circars, situated on a branch of the Godavery, near its junction with the Bay of Bengal, fifty-three miles N.E. from Masulipatam; lat. 16° 25′ N., lon. 81° 58′ E. About twelve miles E. of this place is a village named Sura-yana-yanam, and close to it a shallow lake, at the bottom of which sulphur is found deposited. The country is flat in its vicinity, there being no hill nearer than fifty miles, and stones are almost as rare.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Amran.—A town and fortress, with a small district adjacent, situated in the Guzerat peninsula, twenty-two miles S.W. from Mallia, lat. 22° 41′ N., lon. 72° 43′ E. Near to one of the adjacent villages is a monument erected to commemorate a traga, committed in 1807, by a Rajghur Brahmin. To deter his superior, Hirjee Khowas, from depriving him of some land in the vicinity, he led his mother to the gate of Amran, and there cut off her head, which had the desired effect. Instances of this sort are very frequent in Guzerat, and, on most occasions the victim, whether male or female, not only consents to, but glories in the death inflicted. The person who is in many cases the innocent cause of the catastrophe, is considered by the Brahminical code as damned for ever; while the wretch who for his own profit perpetrates the murder, is not only held innocent by his fellow citizens, but suffers no pang either of heart or conscience. — (*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Amrawutty (*Amaravati*). — A large and populous town in the province of Berar, thirty-four miles S.E. from Ellichpoor, lat. 20° 54′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E. A considerable quantity of cotton, of a good length and staple, was formerly transported from hence to Bengal by land carriage, being a distance of more than 500 miles; and it still carries on a general inland traffic of considerable extent.

Amravutty (*Amaravati*). — A large town in the northern Circars, situated in a plain extending along the south bank of the Krishna, twenty miles N.N.W. from Guntoor, and twelve miles in a direct line S.W. from the fortress of Condapilly. It was built by the late Vencatady Naik in 1796, and for a native town displays considerable neatness and regularity. Five hundred yards west from Amravutty are the ruins of the ancient town of Durnacotta, which is said to have once been the capital of this quarter of Hindostan. The principal curiosities here are the Amreshwar pagoda, one of the chief Siva temples in Telingana, and the great mound of Depaulding, from whence coins, inscriptions, and sculptures are still procured.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Amrooah.—A considerable town in the province of Delhi, a few miles S.W. from Moradabad, with a neat mosque and extensive garden, and surrounded by large plantations of sugar and cotton. The generality of the surrounding country, however, is poor, sterile, and thinly inhabited, and with a very great extent of ground totally waste.

Amritsir (*Amrita Saras, the fountain of nectar*).—The capital of the Seik nation, and holy place of their religion, situated in lat 31° 33′ N.,

long. 74° 48′ E., forty-four miles E. from the city of Lahore. This is an open town, about eight miles in circumference. The streets are narrow; the houses in general good, being lofty and built of burnt bricks, but the apartments are confined. It is still the grand emporium of trade for the shawls and saffron of Cashmere, and various other commodities from the Deccan and eastern part of India, and an excise is levied by the Rajah on all the merchandize sold in the town according to its value. The manufactures of the place are only a few coarse cloths and inferior silks; but owing to its being the resort of many rich merchants, and the residence of bankers, Amritsir is a station of considerable opulence. Runjeet Singh has built a new fort, named Runjeetghur, after himself, and he has also brought a narrow canal from the Ravey, a distance of thirty-four miles.

Amritsir, or the pool of immortality, is a basin of about 135 paces square, built of bricks, in the centre of which stands a temple dedicated to Gooroo Govind Singh. In this sacred place is lodged, under a silken canopy, the book of laws written by that Gooroo; and from 500 to 600 akalies, or priests, who belong to the temple and are supported by contributions, perform its functions. When Ahmed Shah Abdalli conquered Lahore, he destroyed this temple twice, and killed cows, and threw them into the water, in order to defile it effectually Runjeet Singh has a mint here, at which coins of different value are struck in honour of Baba Nanak Shah, the most eminent Seik saint. Good camels, and occasionally horses, are to be purchased here; the first for fifty rupees each. These valuable, patient, and ill-used animals are brought down loaded with rock salt from a mine about eighty miles north of Lahore. Strings of 600 are seen on the road, with a large lump resembling a block of unwrought marble slung on each side.

Some Seik authorities ascribe the foundation of Amritsir to Gooroo Ramdas (who died A.D. 1581), which is not correct, as it was a very ancient town, known formerly by the name of Chak. Gooroo Ramdas added much to its population, and built the famous tank or reservoir named Amritsir, which, in the course of time, gave its name to the town, it having at one time been also named Ramdaspoor.—(*Malcolm*, 11*th Register*, *&c.*)

Amsterdam.—A small island lying off the north-western extremity of Ceylon, and subordinate to the district of Jaffnapatam, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It is five miles in length by two in breadth, and affords excellent pasturage for rearing horses and cattle.—(*Percival*, *&c.*)

Anajf.—A town in the Mysore territories, having a small district annexed, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Chittaldroog; lat. 14° 27′ N., lon 76° 13′ E.

Anak Sungei.—A district in the island of Sumatra, extending along the sea-coast on the S W side, from the Manjuta river to that of Arei. The chief bears the title of sultan, and his capital, if such a place deserves the appellation, is named Mocomoco. Although the government is Malayan, yet the ministers of the sultan are named Mantri (a title borrowed from the Hindoos), and the greater proportion of the inhabitants consist of aborigines.—(*Marsden*, *&c.*)

Analaboo.—The name of a considerable pepper district in Sumatra.

Anam.—A town in the Oude territories, thirty-four miles S.W. from Lucknow, lat. 26° 34′ N., lon. 80° 22′ E.

Anambas (north, middle, and south).—Three clusters of very small islands in the China Sea, situated between lat. 2° 20′ and 3° 30′ N. and about lon. 130° 30′ E. The largest may be estimated at twenty

miles in circumference, but a great majority are mere rocky islets.

Anapectomiou Hills. See Arracan.

Andamans.—The Andaman Islands are a continuation of the Archipelago in the Bay of Bengal, which extends from Cape Negrais to Acheen head, stretching from 10° 32′ N., to 13° 40′ N. What has been considered as the great Andaman is the most northerly, and about 140 miles in length by twenty in breadth. This island, however, is separated by two very narrow straits, which have a clear passage into the Bay of Bengal, and, in reality, divides it into three islands. The little Andaman is the most southerly, and lies within thirty leagues of the Carnicobar Isles Its length is about twenty-eight miles, by seventeen in breadth, but it does not afford any harbour, although tolerable anchorage may be found near its shores. Situated in the full sweep of the S.W. monsoon, and the clouds being obstructed by high mountains, these islands for eight months of the year are washed by incessant torrents; but, upon the whole, the climate is rather milder than in Bengal. The tides are regular, the floods setting in from the west, and rising eight feet at the springs The variation of the needle 2° 30′ easterly.

In the centre of the large Andaman is a lofty mountain, named Saddle Peak, about 2,400 feet high. There are no rivers of any considerable size. The most common trees are the poon, dammer, and oil-trees; red-wood, ebony, the cotton and almond trees; soondry, chingry, and beady; the Alexandrian laurel, the poplar, a tree resembling satin-wood; bamboos, cutch, the melon, aloes, ground rattans, and a variety of shrubs. Many of the trees afford timber and planks fit for the construction of ships, and others might answer for masts.

The birds seen in the woods are pigeons, crows, parroquets, kingsfishers, curlews, fishing-hawks and fowls. There are a great variety of fish, such as mullet, soles, pomfrets, rock-fish, skate, gurnas, sardinas, roe-balls, sable, shad, aloose, cockup, grobers, seerfish, prawns, shrimps, crayfish, a species of whale, and sharks of an enormous size. During the prevalence of the north-east monsoon fish are caught in great abundance, but in the tempestuous season they are procured with difficulty. There are many sorts of shell-fish, and in some places oysters of an excellent quality A few diminutive swine are found on the skirts of the forest; but these are very scarce, and probably the progeny of a stock left by former navigators Although the ordinary food of the Andamaners be fish, they eat likewise lizards, snakes, guanas, and rats. Within the caverns and recesses are found the edible bird-nests, so highly prized by the Chinese, and the shores abound with a variety of beautiful shells, gorgonias, madrepores, murex, and cowries.

The vegetable productions are very few, the fruit of the mangrove being the principal. As the natives possess no pot or vessel that can resist the action of fire, they cannot derive much advantage from such esculents as the forest may contain, and, unhappily for the Andamaners, the cocoa-nut, which flourishes so well at the Nicobar Islands (almost in sight), has never planted itself on their territory.

The population of the great Andaman and all its dependencies does not exceed 2,000 or 2,500 persons, dispersed in small societies along the coast, or on the lesser islands within the harbour, never penetrating deeper into the interior than the skirts of the forest; their sole occupation seems to be that of climbing rocks, or roving along the margin of the sea, in quest of a precarious meal, which during the tempestuous season they often seek in vain.

It is an object of much curiosity to discover the origin of a race of people, so widely differing, not only from all the inhabitants of the neighbouring continent, but also from those of the

Nicobar Islands, which are so near; hitherto, however, the inquiries of travellers have produced no satisfactory conclusion. In stature they seldom exceed five feet; their limbs are disproportionately slender, their bellies protuberant, with high shoulders and large heads. In appearance they resemble a degenerate race of negroes, with woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips; their eyes are small and red; their skin of a deep sooty black, while their countenances exhibit the extreme of wretchedness, a horrid mixture of famine and ferocity; they go quite naked, and are insensible to any shame from exposure.

The few implements they use are of the rudest description. Their principal weapon is a bow, from four to five feet long; the string made of the fibres of a tree, or a slip of bamboo, with arrows of reed, headed with fish-bone, or wood, hardened in the fire. Besides this, they carry a spear of heavy wood, sharp-pointed, and a shield made of bark. They shoot and spear fish with great dexterity, and are said to use a small hand-net, made of the filaments of bark. Having kindled a fire, they throw the fish on the coals, and devour it half broiled.

Their habitations display little more ingenuity than the dens of wild beasts: four sticks forced into the ground, are bound at the top and fastened transversely to others, to which branches of trees are suspended; an opening just large enough to admit of entrance is left on one side, and their bed is composed of leaves. Being much incommoded by insects, their first occupation of a morning is to plaister their bodies all over with mud, which hardening in the sun, forms an impenetrable armour. Their woolly heads they paint with red ochre and water; and when thus completely dressed, a more hideous appearance is not to be found in the human form. Their salutation is performed by lifting one leg, and smacking with their hand on the lower part of the thigh.

Their canoes are hollowed out of the trunks of trees by fire and instruments of stone, having no iron in use among them, but such as they accidentally procure from Europeans, or from vessels wrecked on the coast. The men are cunning and revengeful, and have an inveterate hatred to strangers; they have never made any attempt to cultivate the land, but subsist on what they can pick up or kill; they appear to express an adoration to the sun and to imaginary beings, the genii of the woods, waters, and mountains. In storms they apprehend the influence of a malignant being, and deprecate his wrath by chaunting wild chorusses. Of a future state it is not known that they have any idea, which possibly arises from our imperfect means of discovering their opinions.

The Andamans, together with the Nicobar and lesser islands, were included by Ptolemy in the general appellation of Insulæ Bonæ Fortunæ, and supposed to be inhabited by a race of Anthropophagi, a description which the barbarity of the modern Andamaners perhaps justifies, as far as refers to them; for the inhabitants of the Nicobars are a very different race; they are also mentioned by Marco Polo in the thirteenth century. The language of the Andamaners has not been discovered to possess the slightest affinity with any spoken in India, or among the islands.

The first settlement of the English was made in the year 1791, near the southern extremity of the island, which was afterwards removed, in 1793, to Port Cornwallis. A more picturesque or romantic view can scarcely be imagined than that which Chatham Island and Cornwallis Island present. Being land-locked on all sides, nothing is to be seen but an extensive sheet of water, resembling a vast lake, interspersed with small islands, and surrounded by lofty mountains, covered with trees. The original object of the undertaking was to procure a commodious harbour on the east side of the Bay of Bengal, to receive and shelter

ships of war during the continuance of the north-east monsoon. It was also intended as a place of reception for convicts sentenced to transportation from Bengal; but the settlement proving extremely unhealthy, it was abandoned, and the convicts have since been sent to Prince of Wales' Island, and prior to its cession to Bencoolen.

In 1814 Port Cornwallis was visited by Capt. Canning on his way to Acheen, but all his endeavours to establish an intercourse with the natives proved ineffectual. Few vestiges then remained of the British settlement withdrawn in 1796. Recent fires indicated that the ruins of a brick house on Chatham Island afforded occasional shelter to some of the natives. Close to some muddy water of the worst quality they found the head and back-bone of a shark, the rest of which appeared to have been devoured the same day.

In 1819, two Andaman negroes, captured by a Burmese fishing-junk, were landed at Prince of Wales' Island. According to the Burmese account, they belonged to a party of Andamaners that attacked the Burmese, and wounded four of the crew with their arrows. In height they were about four feet six inches, and in weight about seventy-six pounds, their colour jet black, bodies tattooed, and appetites voracious. They appeared averse to speak, except when left entirely to themselves, when they made a cackling, like turkies.

In April 1824, the British armament, under Sir Archibald Campbell, destined against the Burmese, assembled at Port Cornwallis in the Great Andaman, where some of the ships remained about a month, but during their stay never could effect any communication with the few wretched beings who inhabit these sequestered regions. Savages in every sense of the word, they rejected all intercourse; and if met at any time accidentally on the margin of the dense jungle reaching down to the sea-beach, they immediately evinced hostile feelings, by discharging flights of arrows at the boats, and then penetrating the interior. On this occasion it was ascertained, that the skulls and bones with which their wigwams were adorned belonged to a species of small island hog, and not to the human species, as had been suspected. —(*Symes, Col. Colebrooke, Capt. Canning, &c.*)

ANDAMAN (the Little) ISLE. A flat island covered with high trees, lying due south of the Great Andaman, from which it is distant about forty miles. Lat. 10° 40′ N., long. 92° 30′ E. In length it may be estimated at twenty eight miles by seventeen, the average breadth; but it does not possess any good harbour, although tolerable anchorage may be found near its shores. It was visited to procure water, in November 1825, by the Earl Kellie transport, on her passage to Rangoon, with troops, which were most ferociously received by the natives, who obstructed their watering, and fought two pitched battles, in which they lost many killed and wounded; they would listen to no parley or entreaty, or accept any presents, but discharged showers of arrows which killed one, and wounded three of the soldiers, and to the very last they endeavoured to cut off the pioneers engaged in watering. One party of them were about sixty in number, wild-looking creatures, with frizzled hair, flat noses, small red eyes, and their skins besmeared with mud, and their faces painted with red ochre; they were all completely naked, except one stout man, about six feet high, who wore on his head a red cloth with white spots, and was probably their chief.

They appear, however, to have made further advances in civilization than their neighbours on the Great Andaman, as a hut was discovered on the edge of the jungle twenty feet high, of a conical shape, thatched to within one foot and a half of the ground with rattan leaves, with just room to crawl in underneath. The floor inside was strewed with leaves, and

there were several sleeping cots made of bamboo grating, raised on posts, while the walls were ornamented with rows of smoked skulls of a diminutive hog. From the roof, a piece of red and white checquered cloth, apparently of Madras manufacture, was suspended, and jack fruits and edible roots were discovered in small conical baskets; the drinking vessels seemed to be the nautilus shell. The weapons were a most formidable bow, about seven feet in length, stretched with the feet, and a hand-bow two feet long, both strung with the dark red fibres of a tree; the arrows were above three feet long, some with two, three, and four prongs, and so hard, that when discharged by the soldiers, they penetrated two inches into solid timber No canoes or rafts were seen, and no idols of any description.

The forest into which our soldiers penetrated was gloomy and dismal; the trees of vast height, thickly interwoven with rattans and bushrope, and the air charged with pestilential vapour, from the putrid vegetation with which the swampy ground was covered: parroquets were skreeching over their heads, and poisonous snakes gliding among their feet. The ship's boats returned on board after this unpleasant expedition, laden with bows, arrows, specimens of shells, and ambergris, and during the night the savages were heard on the beach, shouting and yelling defiance Indeed, during the whole adventure, they never evinced the slightest symptoms of fear, but were always most perversely the aggressors.—(*J. E Alexander, &c.*)

Andapoorghur, a town in the province of Orissa, forty-eight miles west from Balasore; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 86° 5′ E.

Andia, a town in the province of Malwa, forty-five miles N.N.E. from Bhopaul. Lat. 23° 46′ N., long. 78° E.

Angstoo, a town in the Nepaulese dominions, supposed to be situated about forty miles north of Jemlah. Lat. 29° 47′ N., long. 81° 25′ E.

Animalaya (*Ani Malaya, or the elephant hill*), a town in the Coimbatoor province, twenty-three miles S.E. from Palighautcherry. Lat. 10° 31′ N., lon. 77° 1′ E This place is situated on the west side of the river Alima, and in A.D. 1800 contained 400 houses It was then a common thoroughfare between Malabar and the southern part of the Carnatic, being situated opposite to the wide passage between the southern end of the ghauts of Carnata and the hills that run north from Cape Comorin. The forests here are extensive, and contain abundance of teak and other valuable timber, but unfortunately too remote from water carriage to permit its exportation.—(*F. Buchanan, &c*)

Anjar.—A small district in the province of Cutch, ceded to the British government in 1816, and governed by a commissioner deputed from Bombay

This is a very arid tract of country, water being very scarce, and in many parts the soil so loose and sandy as to be unfit for tanks. The expense of sinking wells differs according to the nature of the soil and the depth where springs are reached, and, generally speaking, twenty-three cubits must be perforated before water is found. There are some villages where it is necessary to penetrate much deeper, and others where the search is hopeless. Rutnal is one of the largest villages, and Rohur a seaport, yet both are destitute of water, In 1817, out of 201 wells used for irrigation, sixty-six paid no revenue to government, and were much the most productive and profitable. In fact, such is the scarcity of water in Cutch, that any person who sinks a well at his own expense, becomes entitled to the whole of the land it is capable of irrigating. In 1817, notwithstanding these obstacles, the tillage was on the increase, many applications having been made to Capt. McMurdo, the commissioner, by the peasantry for permission to extend the cultivation, and,

with a view to the further improvement of the district, the Bombay government ordered the construction of several tanks. At that date, owing to the prior anarchy, the commerce of Anjar was inconsiderable, but the state of tranquillity it has since enjoyed must have augmented its traffic, as well as its agricultural produce.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Anjar.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the side of a hill nearly ten miles from the gulf of Cutch. The bunder, or port, named Toonea, is fronted by a creek from the gulf; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 70° 11′ E. The fortifications of Anjar form a polygon, but are not strong, being only six feet in thickness and without a ditch. It surrendered to Colonel East in 1816, after a breach had been effected. During the great earthquake of 1819, the half of this town, situated on low rocky ridges, suffered comparatively nothing, while the other half was almost wholly overturned. About 3,000 houses were reported to have been destroyed or rendered uninhabitable, and 165 persons lost their lives. In 1820 the inhabitants were estimated at 10,000 persons.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Anjediva Isle (*Anjadwipa*).—A small island about one mile in circumference and two from the shore, fifty-four miles S. by E from Goa; lat 14° 44′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E. In 1662 Sir Abraham Shipman, when refused possession of Bombay by the Portuguese, landed on this island with his troops, amounting to 500 men, where they continued until 1665, having lost during the interval by sickness all but two officers, and 119 rank and file.—(*Bruce, &c.*)

Anjengo (*Anjutenga*).—A small sea-port town in the province of Travancore, seventy-eight miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin, lat. 8° 37′ N., lon. 76° 53′ E. A short distance from hence lies Attinga (named in the maps Attancal), the chief residence of the Tamburretties or princesses of Travancore. The interior of the country is inhabited by Hindoos, whereas on the sea-coast much the greater proportion of the people are Christians and Mahomedans. In 1684, the East-India Company received permission from the Queen of Attinga to fortify Anjengo and a small strip of land round it; but in 1813, on account of the useless expense, the factory was abolished, by which a saving of 23,000 rupees per annum was effected. The best coir cables on the Malabar coast are made here and at Cochin, of the fibres of the Lacadive cocoa-nut. The other exports are pepper, coarse piece-goods, coir, and some drugs; the imports are of very small amount.—(*Fra. Paolo, MS. Documents, Bruce, &c.*)

Anjenweli.—A town and fortress on the sea-coast of the Concan, 100 miles S by E from Bombay; lat. 17° 33′ N, lon. 73° 18′ E It surrendered to a British detachment in 1818.

Anjeril.—A considerable village half way up the straits of Sunda, on the Java shore, where ships may be conveniently supplied with water and other refreshments, such as buffaloes, poultry, turtle, fruit, vegetables, &c.; lat. 6° 3′ S, lon. 105° 50′ E. Anjeric is situated in a bay formed by Fourth Point and the point of Marak Bay, and is the westernmost port on the island of Java. The village is large and populous, and has a good blockhouse with cannon for the garrison. Towards the interior the country rises gradually, and its fertility is such, that with an adequate population any quantity of vegetables and fruit might be produced. The shore, with the exception of a few fine bays, is rocky, chiefly of coral, and much indented At this place Colonel Cathcart, who died on his way to China, as ambassador in 1785, is interred.—(*Thorn, &c*)

Ankapilly.—A town in the Northern Circars, twenty-four miles travelling distance W. by S. from Vizagapatam, lat. 17° 41′ N, lon. 83° 11′

E. This is a large place, nearly a mile in length and wide in proportion, with a good bazar, and thickly interspersed with trees.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Ankosgerry.—A town in the Mysore territories, forty miles S.E. from Bangalore, lat. 12° 39′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

Annagoondy.—A small district in the Bejapoor province, south of the Krishna, extending along the north bank of the Toombudra river. The principal towns are Bijanagur (or Annagoondy) and the fortress of Kopaul. After the conquest of Bijanagur by the combined Mahomedan princes of the Deccan, in 1564, the nominal Rajas were allowed to retain Annagoondy and some other districts in jaghire for several generations From them it passed to the Maharattas, to Hyder, Tippoo, the Mysore Dewan Purneah, the Nizam, and at last, in 1803, to the British, this nation acting in India as residuary legatee to all the others. The surface of this country is wild and hilly, interspersed with much wood, amongst which are to be seen groves of the wild date tree. For some miles round the city the soil is encumbered in all directions with vast piles of granitic rock In 1820 the reigning Raja was a man of weak intellects, about eighty years of age, who continued to support an appearance of mock royalty, and to amuse himself with the expectation of recovering the ancient possessions of his family. His principal residence was at Camlapoor, from whence he sallied forth with a pack of 100 dogs, having still sufficient strength, notwithstanding his advanced age, to pursue the chace on foot.—See also Bijanagur, of which Annagoondy is a section.—(*Munro, Fullarton, &c.*)

Annicul.—A town in the Mysore territories, twenty miles S.S.E. from Bangalore; lat. 12° 40′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E.

Anooradapoor.—This ancient capital of Ceylon is now a mean village in the midst of a desert. A large tank, numerous stone pillars, and two immense tumuli (probably of temples), are now the principal vestiges; but the spot is still considered sacred, and resorted to as a pilgrimage.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Anopsheher (*Anapa sheher*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west side of the Ganges, about sixty-eight miles E.S.E. from Delhi; lat 28° 23′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E. In A.D. 1800 Anopsheher was surrounded by a strong mud wall, in some parts from twenty to thirty feet thick, and although of no great extent, was thickly inhabited. The houses consisted of a mixture of brick and mud buildings.—(*Tennant, &c.*)

Antery (*Antari*).—A walled town of considerable size within the portion of the Agra province, tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the banks of the small river Dealoo, twelve miles south from Gualior. Lat. 26° 5′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. The neighbouring hills are of quartzoze rock.—(*Hunter, &c.*)

Antoorlee.—A village on the Tuptee, in the province and district of Candeish, about ten miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. In 1820 it was surrounded by a mud wall with brick bastions, and was then divided between Sindia and the British government as successors to the Peshwa.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Aor.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, lying off the east coast of Malacca; lat. 2° 25′ N., lon. 104° 35′ E. The surface is high, and covered with a close lofty wood. A small Malay village here supplies ships with cocoa-nuts and vegetables.—(*Johnson, Elmore, &c.*)

Apakookit. — A town in the Malay peninsula, district of Queda, chiefly inhabited by Chulias, six miles S.E. from Allestar.

Appole.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 88° 59′ E.

Arabs.—See Candeish Province.

Aracote.—In the province of Mooltan. According to native accounts, a few days' journey to the west of Hydernbad, in the centre of seven ranges of hills, there is a pagoda dedicated to the goddess Bhavani, at a place named Aracote—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Araii.—A town in the province of Allahabad, across the Jumna, exactly opposite to the city and fortress of Allahabad. Lat 25° 24′ N., lon. 81° 50′ E.

Aravarcourchy.—A small town in the Coimbatoor district, fifty-four miles W. by S from Trichinopoly, lat. 10° 41′ N., lon. 77° 34′ E. In A.D. 1800 it contained above 300 houses, the inhabitants of which spoke the Tamul language. This place was formerly inhabited by a person of the Bayda caste, named Arava, the name signifying the seat of Arava. It afterwards became subject to Madura, and then to Mysore, the curtur or sovereign of which built a neat fort near the town, and gave it the name of Vijaya Mangalum, by the Mahomedans pronounced Bijamangle. About the end of Hyder's reign an English army took the fort, at which time the town was destroyed.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Arcot, Northern.—A district in the Carnatic under the Madras presidency, which also includes Satwaid, Pulicat, Cooncoody, in the Barramahal, part of the Balaghaut, and of the western pollams. The limits of this district are ill defined, but it may be described generally as bounded on the north by Cuddapah and Nellore, on the south by the southern division of Arcot; on the east it has the sea and the district of Chingleput; and on the west the Balaghaut of Cuddapah.

In 1809, prior to the introduction of an improved system, this fiscal division was in a very miserable condition; but it has since been greatly benefited by judicious management, and is now comparatively prosperous. In 1810 the rented villages were 3,534; villages not rented 65; besides deserted villages. The large tanks, the water of which contributed to the revenue, were 2,698 in number, of which 451 were out of repair; smaller tanks 1,322, of which 510 were damaged. The water-courses from rivers were 678; from springs 647; from anicuts 238; and from wells 19,223, of which 548 wanted repair, and from this enumeration may be inferred how much the agriculture of Northern Arcot depends on irrigation and the good condition of the tanks. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue was 734,325 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 892,292 persons. The principal river is the Palam, and the chief towns Arcot, Wallajanagur, Vellore, and Tripetty.—(*Public MS Documents, Hodson, &c.*)

Arcot, Southern.—A district in the Carnatic under the Madras presidency, extending south-east to Portonovo, which it includes, and during the last war it also comprehended Pondicherry and the lands attached. To the north it is bounded by the northern division of Arcot; on the south by Tanjore and Trichinopoly; on the east it has the Chingleput district and the sea; and on the west Salem and the Balaghaut Carnatic. In 1810 it was estimated to contain about 6,400 square miles.

In 1806 this district was in a very miserable condition, and continued so until 1809, when a triennial settlement of the land revenue was introduced. The number of villages then rented was 3,742, and those not rented 246: total 3,988 villages. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue, exclusive of Pondicherry, was 647,954 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 455,020 persons. The principal trading ports are Cudalore and Porto-

novo.—(*Ravenshaw, Fifth Report, Hodson, &c.*)

Arcot (*Arucati*).—The Mussulmaun capital of the Carnatic, situated on the south side of the Palar river, sixty-eight miles W.S W. from Madras. Lat 12° 52′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E. The bed of the Palar is here half a mile wide, but in the dry season is almost destitute of water. The nearest hills are those to the north of the cantonments, which at a distance appear clothed with verdure, and do not exhibit the smooth naked masses of granite so frequently met with in the Barramahal and Mysore countries.

The fort is of great extent, and has been a regular formidable citadel; but its principal defences were blown up above twenty years ago, and its area is now covered with fields of raghy and the castor-oil plant, interspersed with the scattered ruins of a few buildings On the side towards the Palar, the ramparts protect the place from inundation, and are kept in perfect repair. The town is enclosed by walls, and contains the former palace of the Arcot Nabobs, of which the principal gateway is still entire, but all the rest is a heap of ruins The Jumma musjeed is a handsome Mahomedan mosque, with seven open arches in front, and two small but not inelegant minars. Besides this there are four or five other Mahomedan religious edifices of respectable architecture, and their tombs are numerous; but that of the Nabob Saadut Oolla is the only remarkable one.

Arcot was formerly the nominal capital of the Carnatic below the ghauts, as the Nabob's dominions were designated by the Mahomedans and English, and it is said to have been noticed by Ptolemy as the capital of the Soræ, or Soramundalum, whence Coromandel; but the existing town is quite of modern date. After the Mogul armies captured Ginjee, they found it so extremely unhealthy that they were obliged to canton on the plains of Arcot, which led to the establishment of this capital, about A D. 1716. At present the town is chiefly inhabited by Mahomedans, who speak the Deccany dialect, which we name Hindostany.

Anwar ud Deen, the Nabob of Arcot, was killed in battle A.D 1749, after which this place was taken by Chunda Saheb, the French candidate. In 1751 it was retaken by Capt. Clive, with 200 Europeans and 300 sepoys; the garrison being panic-struck made no resistance, although they amounted to 1,100 men He was immediately besieged by the French and their allies, but notwithstanding the garrison consisted of only 120 Europeans and 200 sepoys fit for service, he resisted fifty days under every disadvantage, and at last compelled the enemy to raise the siege. It afterwards fell into the possession of the French native allies, but was finally taken in 1760 by Col. Coote, after the battle of Wandiwash. In 1780 it surrendered to Hyder, and with its vicinity suffered greatly by his different invasions, and also during the misgovernment of the Nabob's revenue officers

Travelling distance from Madras seventy-three miles; from Seringapatam 217; from Calcutta 1,070, and from Delhi 1,277.—(*Fullarton, F Buchanan, Orme, Wilks, Rennell, &c.*)

Ardinghy (*Urddhanga*)—A town in the Tondimans country, province of the Carnatic, fifty-two miles S.S W. from Tanjore Lat. 10° 8′ N, lon. 79° 3′ E.

Arentis.—A small rocky island in the Eastern seas, lat. 5° 14′ N, lon 115° 10′ E.

Arfak.—The name of a very high mountain in Papua, or New Guinea, bearing due south from Dory Harbour.

Argha.—A town in the Nepaulese dominions, 110 W.N.W. from Gorkha, lat. 28° 15′ N., lon 82° 47′ E. This place stands on a hill, on the summit of which surrounding the chief's castle are about 150 houses,

and 350 more near the middle of the ascent, all with mud walls and thatched roofs. The inhabitants, with the exception of a few Brahmins and Rajpoots, are one-half Kasiyas, and the rest impure cultivators and tradesmen.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Argaum (*Argrama*).—A small village in the province of Berar, thirty-eight miles W.S.W. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 77° 3′ E. On the plains near this place a battle was fought on the 28th November 1803, between the British army under General Wellesley and that of the Nagpoor Raja, in which the latter was totally defeated, with the loss of thirty-eight pieces of cannon, all his ammunition, baggage, elephants, and a great slaughter of his troops. He soon after sued for peace, which was granted. The village in 1820 formed part of the Nizam's dominions.

Ariancoopan.—A small town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, three miles south from Pondicherry, lat. 11° 54′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E. In 1748 this was a fortified town, and taken by Admiral Boscawen with great difficulty prior to his unsuccessful siege of Pondicherry. The fortifications have long disappeared, but the place still belongs to the French, who resort here for recreation on festival days, when tents and temporary booths are erected, and amusements pursued with their characteristic gaiety. The French have a church here, and to the north of the town there is a ferry across the Ariancoopan or Vellenore river.—(*Fullarton, Orme, &c.*)

Ariyloor (*Aryalur*).—A town in the Carnatic twenty-eight miles N from Tanjore; lat. 11° 7′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E.

Arim (*or Aring*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-five miles W.S.W. from Sambhulpoor; lat. 20° 37′ N., lon. 82° 36′ E. About 1775 this place belonged to a Goand chief tributary to the Rajah of Nagpoor. It was then a more flourishing village than is usually found in these unwholesome tracts, as it contained some weavers, and was frequented by itinerant merchants.—(*Leckie, &c.*)

Arinkii.—See Warangol.

Aripo.—A small village in the island of Ceylon, Bay of Condatchy, where the civil and military authorities reside during the season of the pearl fishery. The surrounding country is barren and uncultivated. Lat. 8° 40′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E., 120 miles N.N.E. from Colombo.

Arki.—The residence and head-quarters of Ummer Singh, the Gorkha commander, during the predominance of that people among the hills between the Sutleje and Jumna; lat. 31° 3′ N., lon. 76° 55′ E., sixty-eight miles E.N.E. from Luddeeana.

Armfatie.—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, thirty-seven miles N.E. from Maniepoor; lat. 26° 8′ N., lon. 81° 46′ E.

Armegon.—A town in the Carnatic, sixty-six miles N. from Madras, lat. 14° N., lon. 80° 11′ E. This was the first English settlement in the Carnatic prior to the acquisition of Madras. In A.D. 1625, the East-India Company's principal agents having obtained a piece of ground from the naik or chief of the district, they erected a factory at Armegon, which in 1628 was described as being defended by twelve pieces of cannon and twenty-eight factors and soldiers. In 1822 the Armegon shoal was ordered to be surveyed, to ascertain if a safe harbour could be made between it and the main-land.—See Blackwood's Harbour.—*Bruce, &c.*

Arnee (*Arani*).—A town in the Carnatic, seventy-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 79° 23′ E. During Hyder's invasion of the Carnatic in 1782, his great magazines were deposited in the fortress of Arnee.

Aroo.—A large island in the Eastern seas to the south of Papua, the centre of which lies nearly in the 135th degree of east longitude, and

the 6th of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles by 35 the average breadth. As this island has never been explored, little is known either of the country or its inhabitants. The Chinese merchants settled at Banda carry on a traffic with this remote island, from whence they procure pearls, bird-nests, tortoise-shell, and slaves. An aromatic named missoy bark, resembling cinnamon in its flavour, and much used among the Eastern islands, is principally procured here and at Papua; but it is rarely carried to Europe.

Aroo is conjectured to be one of the places where the bird of paradise breeds, of which seven species are described by Valentyn. They are caught by the Papuas, who draw their entrails and fumigate them, having first cut their legs off, which gave rise to the fabulous report that this bird had no legs, but kept constantly on the wing. The arrangement of their plumage is such as greatly to facilitate their continuing long in the air, but when they do touch the earth they re-ascend with great difficulty, and a particular species is said to be unable to rise again The largest are about thirty inches in length.

ARRACAN.

(Rekhaung).—A maritime province of India beyond the Ganges, recently acquired by conbuest from the Birman empire. Including its dependencies, Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandowy, it lies between 18° and 21° north lat. On the north it is separated from the Chittagong district by the river Nauf; on the south from Bassein in Pegu by a small hill-stream about lat. 18° N., to the east it has the Arracan mountains, and on the west the Bay of Bengal. In extreme length it may be estimated at 230, by an average breadth of fifty miles, occupying an area of about 11,500 square miles. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this country is described as follows: "To the south-east is a large country named Arkung, to which the port or bunder of Chittagong properly belongs. There are plenty of elephants, but great scarcity of horses."

Between the mountains and the sea this province is covered with thick woody jungles, so inundated and intersected by rivers, lakes, creeks, and inlets of the sea, as to form a chain of peninsulas, isthmuses, and islands, completely interrupting the land communication between villages, which can only be visited by water. The soil is in general argillaceous, but in the vicinity of the hills a rich loam prevails. Rain may be said to fall throughout the whole year, as showers are frequent in February, March, and April, and the periodical rains continue from June to November. Even in November and December, occasional and sometimes heavy showers occur. According to one statement, the fall of rain between the first of June and the end of September amounted to 196 inches, and nearly the whole surface of the low country was under water.

When conquered by the British in 1825, Arracan was found partitioned into fifty-five divisions of different sizes, each of which, according to its dimensions, contained from two to sixty paras or small villages. In 1826 the total population of Arracan, including Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandowy, was only estimated at 100,000 persons, of whom six-tenths were Mughs, three-tenths Mahomedans, and one-tenth Burmese; indeed not more than 400 square miles of the whole surface were supposed to be under cultivation, presenting a most remarkable contrast to the adjacent district of Chittagong, of which Arracan is only a continuation. The head Mahomedans generally speak good Hindostany, the lower orders of that faith a sort of mixed dialect; but the prevailing language is the Mugh, which although it differs in some respects (especially pronunciation) from the Burmese, is written in the same character. Rekhaing, or Arracan, is rather the vulgar name of

the capital than of the people, who by those of Ava are named Great Mranmas, as being the original source of both races. The Mughs on the sea-coast are not addicted to agriculture, preferring hunting, fishing, and trafficking Slavery is tolerated in all shapes, and when a man wants to raise money he pawns his wife. The Mughs have no invariable mode of disposing of their dead, some burn the bodies, others bury them, the wealthy in coffins richly gilt. They follow the Buddhist doctrines intermixed with many Hindoo superstitions, such as bloody sacrifices to conciliate the deities of the rivers, woods, and mountains, but their sacerdotal order wear a yellow dress like those of Ava. They do not appear to be much respected by the laity.

Besides these maritime Mughs, there are many rude tribes of the same name scattered about the interior of Arracan, and beyond its eastern limits, as well as those of Chittagong. The territory of the principal chief of the Joomea Mughs in 1794, extended from the south banks of the Sunkar river, over the vallies watered by the branches of the Mamuri and Edgong rivers. The people of this central tribe name themselves Reckrisah, or the sons of sweet water, as they call the Sunkar river. They dwell in villages, and have convents and priests, who instruct the boys to read and write Discrepancies exist between their religious doctrines and those of the Burmese Rahaans, but the basis appears the same They acknowledge a Brahm or supreme being, who they say gave a different religion to each of one hundred and one nations, which would be considered heretical in Ava, but they agree as to their moonies or law-givers The southern tribes of Joomea Mughs, in 1798, occupied six villages on the upper part of the river that passes Ramoo, which the Bengalese name Bakkally. They are poorer, but in other respects differ little from the northern Joomeas. The latter have subjected still more rude tribes, who although tributary, retain their own chiefs, customs, and languages. A few Saksahs or Tripuras are settled among the southern Joomeas. By the Bengalese they are named Rajbungsies, which literally translated means the "descendants of princes," but all over India is a term denoting a person of low birth. The rude people most numerous among the Joomea Mughs are by the Bengalese named Mooroong, and by the Arracaners, Mroo, but they designate themselves Moroosa. They are said to acknowledge a supreme chief named Layklang, residing at a distance in the Ava territories; but each village has a distinct chief, and the different communities are frequently engaged in hostilities. Both the Joomeas and the Bengalese think this tribe so superlatively impure that they will not interfere in their domestic feuds, and let them fight it out

A genuine Arracan Mugh may be described as follows In external appearance he is of moderate stature, but very robust, the face broad, cheekbones wide and high, nose flat, and eyes somewhat oblique, like those of the Chinese. He differs not more from his feeble neighbour of Bengal, in form, feature, and physical strength, than in general habits, particularly with regard to diet Although he stands on some ceremony about taking the life of an animal, he makes none of devouring it when it is dead, and from the rat to the elephant inclusive, nothing comes to him amiss Some species of maggots, and a variety of vegetable productions rejected by most other nations, supply a meal when nothing better can be procured; in short, it is almost impossible to suppose a situation short of absolute confinement in which a Mugh is likely to be starved. Besides being a most foul feeder, the Mugh is personally foul and filthy, an idea always suggested to a stranger by the disgusting appearance of his black teeth and red saliva.

In Arracan proper the only land

assessed was that in which sugar-cane, hemp, indigo, onions, garlic, and turmeric were grown. The average number of ploughs employed is said to have been 3,000, chiefly drawn by buffaloes. The teak tree is found near the sources of the Morossy and Kaladyur rivers, but it is so inaccessible, that timber has usually been imported from Rangoon. Other species of timber, however, are abundant. With respect to fruit, the pine-apples and plantains are of a superior quality, mangoes, jacks, sweet limes, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits are plenty, oranges scarce The indigo plant grows wild and flourishes, but the art of extracting the colouring matter is unknown. The staples of the province are rice and salt, and for the culture of the first, the country, on account of its redundant moisture and burning sun, is peculiarly adapted, nothing is wanted but a good government and the human animal Limestone may be procured from the islands of Ramree, Cheduba, and Juggoo Gold and silver particles are found in the water-courses of Basseen, for liberty to collect which the gatherers pay a certain fine. A considerable traffic was formerly carried on between Arracan and Ava, the first exporting Hindostany and European goods, such as velvet, broad-cloths, piece-goods, silks, muslins, betel-nut, salt, and other articles; receiving in return ivory, silver, copper, palmira, sugar, tobacco, oil, and lacquered-ware.

During the Burmese sway, the custom-house duties were collected at many chokeys, of which Oreatung was the principal, the others being mostly farmed out. The import and export duties then realized about 50,000 rupees per annum. The five principal ferries were also farmed, and the profits and produce of seventeen of the largest nullahs or water-courses; bees'-wax, timber, tobacco, cotton, bamboos, and hill-cloth, were all government monopolies. There was also a rude mint equal to the coinage of about 2,000 rupees per day. In A.D. 1826 the prospective annual revenue for the next five years was estimated as follows:

Land revenue	150,000	per ann.
Import and export duties	50,000	
Court fees and fines	20,000	
	220,000	rupees.

besides the monopolies of salt and opium

A native history of Arracan begins in A D. 701, and continues through a series of 120 native princes down to modern times According to this document, its sovereigns formerly occupied a much more important station in the politics of India than they have recently done: for, according to these annals, the dominions of Arracan at one period extended over Ava, part of China, and a portion of Bengal Certainly, at present, nothing remains to indicate such a prior state of power and civilization, for its condition when acquired by the British was to the last degree savage and barbarous. It does not appear, however, until the Burmese invasion, it had ever been so completely subdued as to acknowledge permanent vassalage to a foreign power, although the Moguls and Peguers had at different times carried their arms into the heart of the country. During the reign of Aurengzebe, the unfortunate Sultan Shuja, his brother and rival, was basely murdered by the Arracan Raja. The Portuguese, sometimes as allies, at others as open enemies, gained an establishment, which only decayed with the general ruin of their interests in Asia. In 1783 (corresponding with the Mugh year 1145) the province was conquered, after a feeble resistance, by the Burmese, and was followed by the surrender of Cheduba, Ramree, Sandowy, and the Broken Isles. The Mughs subsequently made many efforts to rescue their country, more especially in 1811, under a rebel

chief named Kingberring; but were unable to withstand the bravery, discipline, and cruelty of the Burmese; who even managed to extort a surplus revenue, of which about 18,000 rupees were annually remitted to Ava, for the support of the white elephant and his establishment. Arracan proved the grave of General Morrison's army in 1825, and has continued equally destructive, even to the native regiments stationed on the sea-coast and among the islands. Its population is scanty and uncivilized; it possesses no article of export but salt, yields little revenue; requires a burthensome civil and military establishment; and, in a merely pecuniary point of view, is a most unprofitable acquisition.—(*Capt. C. Paton, F Buchanan, Lieut. Trant, Symes, Morgan, Medical Transactions, Cox, Leyden, &c.*)

ARRACAN.—The capital of the Arracan province, situated on a river of the same name, about forty miles from the sea; lat. 20° 30′ N., lon 92° 5′ E. This place stands in a valley surrounded by hills, the highest not exceeding 500 feet, among which are lakes and marshes, communicating with a number of small streams, running between low muddy banks. A nullah, filled by the tide, flows through the valley, which separates it at Mahatta from the great Arracan river. The tide overflows the flat borders of the river to a considerable extent, its reflux converts these into a noisome swamp, and in this swamp great part of the town of Arracan is built, the water flowing under the houses, which are raised on posts, after the manner of the Mughs, Burmese, Malays, and other eastern nations. With the exception of the swampy ground, the soil consists of rock, crumbling on the surface, and forming itself into gravel, well adapted for roads or the floors of houses. The hills generally assume a conical shape, some being insulated, others connected by narrow ridges, but all scattered in an irregular manner, and separated by many ill-ventilated ravines, vallies, and confined spots of level ground, each occupied by a stream, a lake, or a marsh. A thin layer of loose black soil covers the mouldering rock; and where this has not been washed away by the rain, grass and jungle shrubs abound; but few or no trees of any considerable growth are to be seen, except in the vallies. Fifteen miles to the eastward a range of mountains, about 2,000 feet high, take a direction north and south nearly parallel with the coast, and another range of much less height skirts the shore. Between these the distance varies, but in the parallel of Arracan may be about fifty miles. The alluvial plains that intervene are intersected by a labyrinth of small rivers, in communication with the principal channel, which takes a northerly course, and diversified by detached groups and ridges of hills, few exceeding 700 feet in height.

The town is composed of bamboo huts, built on each bank of the stream, and connected by wooden bridges. In its centre is a square, surrounded by a wall, and containing pagodas, with images of Gaudma, from an inch to twenty feet in height; they are also numerous on the adjacent hills, most of them solid like pyramids.

This town and fort were captured by the Burmese in 1783, after a feeble opposition. They found a considerable booty, but on nothing was a higher value placed than an image of Gaudma (the Gautama of the Hindoos), made of brass and highly burnished. The figure is about ten feet high, in a sitting posture, with the legs crossed and feet inverted, the left hand resting on the lap, the right pendant. This image is believed to be the original resemblance of the rishi (saint) taken from life, and it is so highly venerated, that pilgrims have for centuries resorted to it from the remotest countries where the supremacy of Gaudma is acknowledged, to pay their devotions at the feet of his

brazen representative. There were also five images of Racshyas (the demons of the Hindoos), of the same metal, and of gigantic stature, the guardians of the sanctuary. A piece of ordnance of most enormous dimensions was also found, composed of huge bars of iron beaten into form. This ponderous cannon measured thirty feet in length, two and a half in diameter at the mouth, and ten inches in the calibre. It was transported by the Burmese to Ammerapoora by water, as a military trophy; and Gaudma, with his infernal guards, was in like manner conveyed to that capital with much pomp and superstitious parade. The town of Arracan has probably much deteriorated since the above era, as, when captured by General Morrison's army in 1825, it was found in a most miserable condition, and pestilentially unwholsome. In 1826, Akyab was the principal station in Arracan.—(*Symes, Morgan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Arracan Mountains.—A chain of mountains which commence at Cape Negrais, and proceed in a northerly direction almost to the southern bank of the Brahmaputra in Assam. By the natives they are named the Yomadoung, or Anameectopiu mountains, and form a strong and well defined boundary for the province on the side of Ava. Their general elevation seems to be from 3,000 to 5,000 feet. They were crossed in 1826 from Shembewgewn, on the river Ava, to Amherst Harbour in Arracan, by Lieut. Trant and a detachment of sepoys, and were found to decline towards the east in a succession of ranges, but more abruptly towards the west. They were supposed to be destitute of water, but abundance of springs were discovered that might be easily collected into reservoirs; and it appeared that a considerable commerce had been carried on by this route before the British invasion.

These mountains were in the same year crossed further south, from Padangmew to Ramree, by Lieut. Browne and a party of sepoys. This route was found much more difficult than the other, and had never been much frequented. One part of the road was found to be 4,000 feet above the level of the sea by barometrical mensuration; but this was not the greatest elevation attained. No human being or cultivated ground was seen on the line of march, the whole country being a succession of hills, jungles, and ravines.—(*Lieut. Trant, Lieut. Browne, &c.*)

Arrah.—A large and populous town in the province of Bahar, the capital of the Shahabad district; lat. 25° 35′ N., lon. 83° 57′ E., thirty-five miles west from Patna.

Arratum.—A British division in the province of Gujerat and district of Kaira, extending along the east corner of the gulf of Cambay, and bounded on the south by the Goelwar and Bhownuggur territories. It is intersected by various small rivers of short course. The principal towns are Dundooka and Ranpoor.

Arrawud.—A town in the province of Khandesh, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar. Lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E., thirty-four miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. The Satpoorah mountains, covered with wood and jungle, are about six miles distant.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Arrundool.—A large town, or rather the remains of one, in the province of Candeish, seventy miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. In 1816, it contained many large buildings, but in a very ruinous condition.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Arrysir.—A town in the province of Cutch, twenty-six miles N.N.E. from Mallia; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 71° 3′ E.

Arval.—A town in the province of Bahar, on the south-east side of the Sone river, forty miles S.W. from Patna, lat. 25° 15. N., lon. 84° 44′ E.

Ashta.—A village near Punderpoor,

in the province of Bejapoor, where in 1818 Goklah, the Peshwa's commander-in-chief was defeated and slain. The Satara Raja, his mother and two brothers were captured, the Peshwa himself escaping with the greatest difficulty.

ASHTA.—A town in the Malwa province fifty-nine miles E by S. from the city of Oojein, lat. 23° 3′ N, lon. 76° 46′ E During the Pindarry war this was the head-quarters of Cheetoo, and was subsequently conferred on the Nabob of Bhopaul

ASEERGHUR (or *Hassei*).—A town and fortress of great strength in the province of Candeish, the capital of a district belonging to Sindia, but the fort and a few surrounding villages were ceded to the British government, lat 21° 28′ N, lon 76° 23′ E, twelve miles N N E from Boorhanpoor. By Abul Fazel it is called the capital of Candeish, but native authorities place it half in the Hindoo division of Nemaur, as it stands on the Satpoorah range of mountains which separates the provinces Its name is said to originate from the founder Assa, a rich Hindoo zemindar of the Aheer tribe. The upper hill, in its greatest length from east to west, is about 1,100 yards, and its extreme breadth about 600, but owing to its irregular shape the area does not exceed 300,000 square yards It crowns the top of a detached hill 750 feet high, and round the base of the wall enclosing the area is a bluff precipice, from eighty to 100 perpendicular depth, and so well scarped as to leave no avenues of ascent except at two places, both of which are strongly fortified Aseerghur has also the rare advantage of possessing an abundant supply of water; but it also presents many ravines and hilly ramifications, which greatly facilitate the approaches of an enemy. A sally port of extraordinary construction descends through the rock at the south-eastern extremity, which can be easily blocked up by dropping down stones at certain stages of the ascent near the top. The principal road to the fort is on the south-west side, where, in consequence, a double line of works are erected, and the masonry of the whole is uncommonly well finished. A third line of works, called the lower fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the pettah, which has a wall on the south side, but is open elsewhere, being naturally protected by ravines and deep hollows, that extend in every direction.

Aseerghur was the capital of Candeish when subdued by the Emperor Acber, and is described by Abul Fazel as situated on a hill and incomparably strong In A D 1803 it surrendered to the army under Col Stevenson without much resistance, and the same year was restored to Sindia at the conclusion of a peace In 1819 it became necessary again to besiege this formidable strong-hold, Jeswunt Row Lar, the (as Sindia asserted) refractory governor, having rejected all overtures. When all the detachments had joined, the besieging army under Generals Doveton and Malcolm amounted to 20,000 men, and it was captured after an obstinate resistance, with the loss of 213 men killed and wounded, including eleven European officers, and also one company of sepoys, blown up in the explosion of the magazines, containing 300 barrels of gunpowder. The loss of the enemy was only forty-three killed and ninety-five wounded, for they fought under excellent personal cover except from shells. Indeed, it was entirely owing to the havock made in their walls that they were compelled to surrender, such having been the effect of twenty-two heavy-guns, and twenty-six mortars and howitzers, in battery, during sixteen days open trenches.

In 1820 Aseerghur remained nearly in the same state as when it surrendered, the trenches in the upper fort still open, and fragments of shells lying scattered about among the ruins. Half of the garrison was in tents and the other half quartered in the great mosque, a spacious structure of grey stone, with two minars, but without any cupola. Close to one of the tanks on the west side off the fort is a re-

markable sally port, conducting by a flight of steps cut in the bottom through the body of the rock in which magazines are also excavated. The pettah of Aseerghur, a large irregular village with one good street or bazar, stands at the base of the rock, and in 1822 contained only 2,000 inhabitants.

The approach to Aseerghur from the northward through the Kuttee pass, is over a wild tract of country, and the vicinity is infested by tigers, so numerous and daring, as to enter the lower fort and carry off some of the garrison. The wolves are also exceedingly troublesome. This fortress with a small tract of jungly unproductive land belongs to the British government, but stands in the midst of Sindia's territories. In 1824, the civil and military establishments were transferred to Bombay, having until then been under the Bengal presidency.—(*Blacker, Fullarton, Malcolm, Abul Fazel, &c*)

ASHNOOR.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, twelve miles E.S E. of Jalraputun, which in 1820 contained about 1,200 inhabitants, and the surrounding country was rich and well cultivated. Lat. 24° 30′ N., lon 76° 25′ E.

ASIA ISLES.—A cluster of low islands in the eastern seas covered with trees, lat. 1° N., lon. 131° 30′ E.

ASSAHAN.—This is the name of a town, country, and river on the N E. coast of the island of Sumatra, the first situated in lat. 3° 1′ N., lon. 99° 52′ E. The river at its mouth is about 1,500 yards wide, but is shallow and difficult of access on account of an extensive sand-bank. The country is named from the abundance of a sort of long lank grass.

There was formerly a colony of Javanese and also one of Portugueze settled up the Assahan river, and the remains of an old Javanese fortification are still visible about seventy miles from its extremity.

In 1822, commerce had much decreased, but there were still about eighty prows of various sizes belonging to the community, engaged in trafficking to Malacca, Penang, and Singapoor. The principal imports are salt, opium, and coarse cotton goods: arms and gunpowder are at all times welcome articles. The exports are dye woods, rattans, rice and wax, besides horses and slaves; the price of the first being from twenty to thirty dollars; of the last, women, forty; children, twenty, and old men twelve dollars per head. Formerly 300, almost all females, were exported. Tin is said to be abundant in the mountains of the interior. Inland there are many Batta tribes, speaking various dialects, some addicted to cannibalism, others not. The names of the chief abstinent tribes are the Karaukarau, the Pedimbanau, and the Tubbaa. In 1822, the total population of the Assahan principality of every description was estimated at 70,000 souls. —(*Anderson, &c.*)

ASSAM

(*Asam*).

This remote country adjoins the province of Bengal at the north-eastern corner, about the ninety-first degree of east longitude, from whence it stretches in an easterly direction to an undefined distance; but it is probable that about the ninety-sixth degree of east longtitude it comes into contact with several barbarous and unknown tribes, who occupy the intervening space from thence to the province of Yunan in China. In this direction it follows the course of the Brahmaputra, being in fact the valley through which that river flows. The average breadth of this valley may be estimated at sixty miles, although in a few places of Upper Assam, where the mountains recede farthest, the breadth considerably exceeds that distance. In its greatest dimensions Assam may be estimated at 350 miles in length by sixty the average breadth, divided into three provinces: Camroop on the west, Assam in the centre, and Seediya at the eastern extremity.

In 1809 the territory of the Assam raja no where reached the northern hills, the deb raja of Bootan having taken possession of the tracts adjacent thereto, which is a modern usurpation, since the breaking out of the disturbances that have so long desolated this unhappy country. The western province, named Camroop, with several subordinate or intermixed petty jurisdictions, extends from the British boundary to near the celebrated temple of middle Kamakhya (lat. 26° 30′ N., lon. 93° E.), being about 130 miles in length. From the boundary opposite to Goalpara to Nogurbera, a distance of twenty-one miles, the Assamese then possessed only the northern bank of the Brahmaputra, so that on the south side the length of the Camroop was only 109 miles. Its width on the south side of the river may be reckoned at from fifteen to thirty, and on the north side, on an average thirty miles. About 104 miles above Gohati, which stands in lon. 91° 50′ E., the Brahmaputra separates into two branches, and encloses an island said to be five days' journey in length and about one in width. This province contains many low hills covered with woods, and also a great extent of fine low land, all susceptible of cultivation.

Assam Proper, the middle province of the kingdom, was then (1809) of greater extent than the western; but no European having penetrated far beyond the capital (Gohati), situated at its western extremity, there was no data for ascertaining its length. The portion north of the Brahmaputra, named Chandwar, was supposed to exceed 200 miles in length, by twenty in average breadth; but the length on the south side of that river was reckoned less considerable. It commenced near the Middle Kamakhya, about 130 miles E. from Goalpara, and reached to Upper Kamakhya, ten miles below Tikliya Potar Mukh. Within these limits it comprehended the upper half of the western island formed by the Brahmaputra, and included the whole of the very large island named Majuli, between the Brahmaputra and a large tributary, named the Dehing. The province of Assam Proper was then considered of a higher and better soil than that of Camroop, and not so jungly and hilly. Of the third and most remote province, Seediya, nothing was then known, except that it was a small tract on the western side of the Dikrong river, about lon. 95° 10′ E. In Mahomedan geography Assam is considered as separated into three grand divisions, called Ootrecool, Dukhincool, and Majuli, which by Abul Fazel, in 1582, are described as follows: "The dominions of Assam join to Camroop; he is a very powerful prince, lives in great state, and when he dies, his principal attendants, both male and female, are voluntarily buried alive along with his corpse."

From the confines of Bengal at the Kandar custom-house, the valley as well as the river and boundary mountains, preserve a northerly direction to a considerable distance, but afterwards incline to east by north, and the valley through its whole length is divided by the Brahmaputra into longitudinal portions, those to the south having generally the greatest breadth. The river Cailasi is alleged to have been formerly between the British territory and Assam; but at present no part of that river passes through the British dominions. This encroachment of the Assamese is said to have taken place some time between the years 1770 and 1780, when six small districts were taken from the Bijnee raja, then tributary to Bengal. In 1809 the Assam territory, where it was entered from Bengal, commenced north of the Brahmaputra at Kandar, and on the south at the Nogurbera hill. On the north Assam was bounded by the successive mountainous ranges of Bootan, Auka, Dophla, and Meeree, and on the south by the Garrow mountains, which rise in proportion to their progress eastward, and change the name of Garrow to that of Naga.

Such was the description of Assam in 1809, since which date it has been penetrated even beyond its utmost eastern limits; but the topographical documents and reports of the different surveying officers having been withheld in Bengal, our information regarding the interior is not so satisfactory as could be wished, more especially with respect to latitudes and longitudes. In 1826 an attempt was made to prosecute the inquiry along the Brahmaputra towards its source, which succeeded in penetrating among the mountains, five days' march beyond Brahmacoond (which was found not to be the source of the Brahmaputra) into the country of the Meeshoo Mismee tribe, and within four days' journey of the first Lama village. In May 1827 Lieutenants Wilcox and Burlton proceeded from Seediya to the eastward, with the intention of crossing the Langtan snowy mountains into the Khampti country, and in the direction of the upper part of the Irawady river. They crossed the above mountains early in May, when the snow was lying on the surface, and it occupied twelve days to reach the residence of the Borkhamti raja, on the opposite side of the mountains, during the whole of which time it rained continually, and the travellers were much infested by leeches and a sort of venemous fly, the sting of which always produced a disagreeable sore.

The Khamties and their raja proved friendly, and they remained at their village until the second of June, during which interval they visited the sources of the Irawady, distant only twelve miles. Although unable to trace it to any single ultimate spring, they were satisfied, from the reports of the natives, that it originated in the mountains covered with perpetual snow, about fifty miles to the north of their station, the river having, where they examined it (lat. 27° 30′ N.) every appearance of a mountain torrent, and notwithstanding the perpetual rain, it was fordable, and not more than eighty yards broad. The Irawady consequently cannot be a continuance of the Sanpoo; and according to intelligence collected on the spot, there is no considerable stream to the east between the Irawady and Loukiang. The country from hence to the frontiers of China is extremely rugged and impracticable, and never traversed even by the hardy Khamti mountaineers. It seems probable, therefore, that both the Loukiang and the Irawady, as well as the Brahmaputra, spring from different faces of the same cluster of snowy mountains, which effectually bar all communication to the north. The Irawady thence to Bhanmo flows through a barbarous and unexplored country, covered with hills, jungles, and mountains. The party returned by a different and shorter route, but over still loftier mountains, on which the snow was lying, in some parts twelve feet thick, on the fourth of June.

The number and magnitude of the rivers in Assam probably surpass those of any other country in the world of equal extent. They are in general of a sufficient depth at all seasons to admit of a commercial intercourse in shallow boats, and during the rainy season boats of the largest size find sufficient depth of water. The total number has been estimated at sixty-one, but the principal are the Brahmaputra or Luhit, the Dihong, the Dibong, the Dikho, and the Dikrong.

The Brahmaputra has been traced among the hills five days' journey beyond Brahmacoond, into the Borkhamti country, where its size is reduced to that of an insignificant mountain torrent: its source cannot therefore be very remote, and it probably originates in the same range of hills that give birth to the Loukiang and Irawady, but on a different face. In lat. 27° 54′ N., lon. 95° 24′ E., ten days' journey below Brahmacoond, this river ceases to be navigable, its channel there being a complete mass of rock, with a depth (in March 1825) of only four feet in the deepest part, and with so rapid a current, swelled by every shower, as to preclude tracking. At that spot it was

150 yards across, and the distance of the extreme banks about 600 yards. Between the meridians of 94° and 96° 30', and lat. 27° and 28° the Brahmaputra bends from a northerly to an E.N E. direction, bounded by the Meeree, Abor, and Meeshmee hills, behind which various ranges of lofty snowy mountains (the Langtan) extend all along the northern horizon to an unknown depth and altitude, apparently like the Himalaya in parallel lines and ridges Actual observation and the activity of recent explorers, has subverted the pre existing theory that the Brahmaputra was a continuation of the Sanpoo. It is difficult to account satisfactorily for the mistake into which Major Rennell and other geographers fell respecting the course of this river, for in the time of the Compte de Buffon, the true notion prevailed, as he speaks of a Lake Champé which gives rise to the two great rivers that water Assam and Pegu. These were probably the Brahmaputra and the Irawady, and it must be recollected that until the grand revolution effected by Alompra, the present Burmese empire was subject to Pegu. The head of the Sakato branch of the Brahmaputra was ascertained to be in lat 27° 51' N. According to Brahminical geography, the Prabhu mountains form the eastern boundary of Assam, and through them there is a tremendous chasm made by Parasurama (the same who conquered Ceylon and extirpated the Khetries of Malabar), which has ever since admitted the Brahmaputra. This cleft is still named Prabhu Kuthara, because it was made with a mighty scimitar.

Many of the streams contributory to the Brahmaputra are remarkable for the winding of their courses. The Dikrung, although the direct distance be only twenty-five miles, is said to perform a meandering course equal to 100, before it falls into the Brahmaputra. It is also noted for the quantity and quality of its gold, which metal is likewise found in other rivers of Assam, more especially near the mountains. The southern rivers are never rapid; the inundation commencing from the northern, fills both the Brahmaputra and the channels of the southern ones, so that the water has no considerable current until May and June. All the streams east of Seedeeya abound with rapids from the great inclination of their beds.

Assam is bounded on the north by a chain of very lofty mountains, a continuation of those which, taking their rise at the western extremity of Asia, extend under different names for an unknown distance into China. The Assam northern mountains towards the west are inhabited by the Abors and the Misinees, which last extend along to the eastern hills, where they come into contact with the Singhphos. The other tribes adjacent to Assam are the Abors, Dophlas, Garrows, Bijnies, Khampties, Nagas, Mismees, Moamareas, Meerees, and Singhphos. The five first-named are described under their respective heads. The Meerees are a small and babarous tribe, who have some villages on the banks of the Brahmaputra, about lat. 28° N., lon. 94° E. The principal are Motgong and Meereegong. They differ in language and appearance from the inhabitants of Assam proper, and are armed with bows and poisoned arrows. Before the British conquest they adhered to Seediya Goham, and opposed the Singhphos.

The Mismee tribe inhabit the country about Brahmacoond, and the sources of the Brahmaputra, where they are collected in small but frequent villages, the houses of which are built along the steep faces of the mountains, in such a manner that the rock forms one side of their mansion, and supports one end of the rafter, the other resting on wooden posts; the space under the floor is occupied by their poultry and cattle. Besides swine and their own hill cattle, wealthy individuals have the small oxen of Assam proper, the chowry-tailed cattle of Tibet; young dogs as a luxury

are held in particular estimation, as is also the musk beetle, which having been squeezed between two stones, they dress as a grill. After a feast the skulls of the cattle are blackened and suspended in rows to ornament their dwellings. The vegetable diet of the Mismees consists principally of Indian corn, and a small grain named bubessia; but they cultivate very small quantities of a white rice, and also maruya, yams, mustard, pepper, cotton, and tobacco. Their common dress is a piece of coarse cotton cloth, but they are very dirty in their persons, scarcely ever having recourse to water for the purposes of ablution. The Mismees can work rudely in iron and brass, but their culinary utensils are mostly of copper, and are obtained from the Lama country, with which they keep up an active trade. They bring from thence smoking pipes, straight swords, dyed woollens, beads, rock-salt, and the chowry-tailed cows, in exchange for which they give musk, skins, a bitter medicinal root, ivory, and other articles, and formerly slaves captured in Assam. Their pipes are commonly marked with Chinese characters, and as well as the swords and beads, are probably of Chinese manufacture. The Mismee females are not kept concealed, and appear fair and of good stature; the men are athletic, with tolerably good complexions. The country surrounding Brahmacoond is better peopled than most tracts in this region, having a number of villages scattered over it, the chiefs of which share the offerings at the sacred well.

The Moamareas (Mahamaris) are a tribe formerly tributary to Assam, but who revolted about A.D. 1790, and under the command of a priest committed the greatest excesses. They inhabited an island formed by the Boree Dihing river, which descending from the east takes a sweep to the southward, before it joins the Luhit or Brahmaputra Proper, and forms a large island about lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 95° 30′ E., conjectured to be 100 miles in length by forty in breadth. This is probably the Majuli of the old maps, for the one now named Majuli is not more than twenty miles long by four or five wide. This last is situated at the confluence of the Boree Dehing and Boree Luhit with the Brahmaputra, the eastern extremity being in lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 94° 24′ E.; but, as has already been stated, owing to the non-transmission of the surveys from Bengal, all these latitudes, longitudes, and dimensions must be considered very uncertain.

Opposite to Seedeeya, about lat. 27° 52′ N., lon. 95° 16 E., where the Moamarea country ends, that of the Singhphos commences, intersected by the Now Dehing flowing from the south-eastern hills. These Singhpho tribes were formerly tributary to Assam, but after the decay of that ancient kingdom, revolted, and wrought it much woe, plundering the country, and carrying the natives into slavery. In fact, the northern and eastern parts of Assam have been for a considerable time (above forty years) wrested from the original inhabitants by these barbarians, who, encouraged by the intestine discords of the Assamese, descended into and conquered the plains, compelling their new subjects to cultivate them, and transporting so many into the mountains, that prior to 1825, when the British commenced operations in Upper Assam, it was estimated they had possession of 15,000 of these wretched beings. In February 1825 they were expelled by Colonel Richard's detachment, and half of the above number of captives rescued, and negotiations were then carrying on for the liberation of the rest.

Before the British invasion the Singhpho tribes occupied the entire space, bounded by the south and south-east hills on the north of the Brahmaputra, and west by a meridian line drawn from Seediya to the hills, excluding Theok and Makroom, and the Dipung nullah. They were then divided into twelve tribes, inhabiting different villages, of

which Bhisagong was the most important, and were governed by chiefs acting separately or in concert according to circumstances, but acknowledging no supreme head. They were armed with a short square-ended sword, oblong shield, bows and arrows, and were found very desirous of procuring muskets, although but little acquainted with the use of them. According to tradition the Singhphos emigrated from a much more northerly region (somewhere on the borders of China) than that in which we came in contact with them. Their religion is Buddhism intermixed with many remains of their primitive superstitions; in fact, they appear to be a sort of Buddhist Rajpoots, addicted to war, and delegating the cultivation of the lands to Assamese helots.

The district of Seedıya is not considered an integral portion of Assam proper, but has for a very long period been subject to that kingdom. In 1825 it was found in a most wretched condition, and principally inhabited by refugee Khamties and Mulooks expelled from their own countries to the south-east by the Singhphos. At the above date Seedıya was governed by the Seedıya Shah, or gohain, a Khamti prince claiming descent from the Hindoo deity Indra, besides whom he worshipped most others of the Brahminical pantheon, after the doctrines of the Assamese heresy, but eat all flesh except that of cows. With the assistance of the Abors, Meeries, and other petty tribes, he attempted to make a stand against the Singhphos. The town or village of Seedıya stands at the mouth of the Koondeil nullah; lat. 27° 52′ N.

Under the native government of Assam, before its decline into anarchy, a ready access throughout the country was maintained at all seasons, by the construction of broad and elevated causeways, practicable to pedestrians when all the rest of the plains was under water. In the course of time, during the subsequent convulsions that so long agitated this miserable kingdom, these bunds or causeways nearly disappeared, but in many parts they may still be traced. One of the principal is said to have extended throughout the whole length of Assam from Cooch Bahar to Seediya. In 1826 it was visited at a spot about two miles from a village named Lakhomati Bhoteya, where it runs through a thick jungle following the direction of north 55° east, and dividing the district of Noa Dewar from the Dophla country. The tract on the north side of the causeway belongs to the Dophla raja, whilst the bund itself and the country to the south are within the boundaries of Assam Proper. The causeway at Lakhomati is about eighteen feet broad, and generally eight feet high, but in many parts it is nearly obliterated, and very generally hidden by brushwood and trees of considerable growth. There are no villages along this causeway, probably owing to its having been so completely overgrown with jungle as to have become impassable. At a short distance north of it is a small hill rivulet named the Deiring, flowing over a bed of sand and siliceous stones, among which a half-formed coal has been found.

The animal and vegetable productions of Assam are nearly the same with those of Bengal, which country it much resembles in its physical appearance and the multitude of its rivers. Transplanted rice forms three-fourths of the whole crops. Next to rice a kind of mustard-seed is the most considerable crop, the oil extracted from it being that most in use; indeed the quantity of sesamum is very inconsiderable. Wheat-barley and millet are very little used. Formerly the cytisus cajan was only cultivated for the rearing of the lac insect, but is now preserved for its pulse, and other plants are employed to rear the insect. The most common pulse in Assam is the hairy-podded kidney-bean. Considerable quantities of black pepper are raised, and also long chilies, chovies, gin-

ger, turmeric, capsicums, onions, and garlic. In 1825 English seeds were found to thrive well; the betel leaf is universal; there is plenty of *areca-nut, tobacco, and opium*, both for home-consumption and exportation. The sugar-cane thrives, but is mostly eaten fresh from the field; a little of the saccharine juice is extracted, but no sugar manufactured. Coco-nuts are very rare; and no palm-wine is made, but oranges abound. Cotton is reared by most of the hill tribes, but is little used by them.

No less than four different kinds of silk-worms are reared, silks of several varieties forming great part of the native clothing, besides leaving a surplus for exportation. The silk-worm reared on the mulberry is the least common, the most common being that produced on a species of laurus, and called muga. The tree is planted and its branches pruned, but the insect is fed on the tree as it grows, and yields two crops: that procured in the beginning of the dry season is red; that which is procured towards the end of spring is white, and reckoned the best. The silk called medangori is reared in Assam Proper, on a tree that is cultivated; the silk called erendi is reared on the ricinus, in large quantities, in Rungpoor.

In Camroop the oxen are the common labouring cattle. In Assam Proper many buffaloes are employed in the plough. Sheep are very scarce, and goats not numerous; there are few horses and no asses. In 1825, the British troops procured fowls, beef, and veal. The Assamese workmen can make locks, padlocks, sacrificial knives, spears, spike-nails, clamps for boat-building, and match-locks. These are innovations; and in 1809, scissors were still unknown. The best goldsmiths are from Bengal. The person who wishes to have any thing made, furnishes the metal, of which the workmen receive a share for their trouble, as they have no capital, except a few miserable tools.

The native women of all castes, from the queen downwards, wear the four kinds of silk produced in the country, and with which three-fourths of the people are clothed; the rich only dressing in cottons, mostly imported from Dacca. Considerable quantities of the two coarser kinds are exported. The raw material is seldom purchased, each family spinning and weaving the silk which it rears; and petty dealers go round and purchase for ready money whatever can be spared for exportation, or for the use of the few persons who do not rear their own silkworms. The proper silk, or pata, is only used for dhoties for the persons of high rank, and the same may be said of the Medangori silks; the Muga silks clothe the middle classes, and the Erendi covers the poor. The cotton weavers are mostly foreigners, and the cloth they produce usually of the coarsest quality. In 1809, there were some workers in ivory, in the Chinese fashion, who it was said could straiten the tooth of an elephant, by covering it with a thick coat of clay and cow-dung, and then exposing it to a fire. According to native report, the useful and simple arts of making butter and cheese were at that date unknown.

Under the old native government, and prior to the expulsion of the Burmese in 1825, the custom-houses towards Bengal were usually farmed out to the best bidder; and the whole trade of the country was, in fact, monopolized by a few individuals, who, agreeably to the terms of a treaty concluded in 1793, ought to have levied only ten per cent. on exports and imports, but in reality extorted as much as they could. Formerly, salt was sold by Europeans settled at Goalpara, to the amount of 100,000 maunds annually; but the trade becoming monopolized by the farmers of the customs, that quantity in 1809 diminished to 35,000 maunds. This might also in part be attributed to a decreased demand; for the population of Assam had been reduced by the long-prevailing anarchy, and those who survived much

impoverished. In 1809, the total value of the exports from Bengal to Assam was only 2,28,000 rupees, of which amount salt was 1,92,000 rupees, and muslins 10,000; the rest a variety of trifling articles, and a few fire-arms secretly smuggled. The value exported amounted to about 1,51,000 rupees, of which sum-total lac was 55,000, cotton 35,000, mustard-seed 22,000, muga-silk cloth 17,500, and muga-silk 11,350, ivory 6,500, and slaves 2,000 rupees. The balance was usually paid in gold, which is found in all the small rivers of Assam that flow from the boundary hills to the north and south, and more especially from the first. Now that the intercource is quite open, and the British power predominant, it is probable that many other valuable commodities and mineral productions will be discovered, and a brisk trade pushed towards China and Ava.

According to native report, the gold comes from the mine called Pakerguri, and is contained in the sand at the junction of the Donsiri or Donhiri river with the Brahmaputra, about thirty-two miles in a strait line from Gohati. The miners begin to work from the 15th September to the 14th October, and each man is expected to deliver one and a half rupees weight of gold-dust, and may keep any excess, but must also make up any deficiency In 1809 it was estimated that one thousand men were employed and paid in land, and that consequently the state received 1,500 rupees weight of gold. A rupee's weight of gold was then valued at eleven rupees' worth of silver; but it was adulterated, and formed into small balls, which were carried to Goalpara, and sold at the rate of eleven sicca rupees for the weight of an Assamese rupee. This matter, however, requires further elucidation, which it will ere long no doubt receive. In the province of Seediya, salt is procured from brine pools, and said to be purer and higher-priced than the salt of Bengal.

While Hindostan was under the Mogul emperors, the trade with Assam was a source of considerable national profit, and for many years after the acquisition of the Dewanny in Bengal individuals gained largely, but it afterwards greatly declined. It does not appear that any merchants from Assam ever repaired to Lassa in Tibet, but formerly a commercial intercourse was carried on in the following manner. At a place called Chouna, two months' journey from Lassa, on the confines of the two states, there was a mart established, and on the Assam side there was a similar mart at Gegunshur, distant four miles from Chouna. An annual caravan then resorted from Lassa to Chouna conducted by about twenty persons, conveying silver bullion to the amount of about one lack of rupees, and a considerable quantity of rock-salt for sale to the Assam merchants at Gegunshur, to which place the latter brought rice, coarse silk cloths, iron, and lac, the produce of Assam, and otter skins, buffaloe horns, pearls, and coral, previously imported from Bengal. A peshcush or offering was then annually sent from the Assam Raja to the grand or Dalai Lama, but no other public intercourse, with the exception of the commerce above described, appears ever to have subsisted between the Tibet and Assam states.

All the royal family of Assam have a right to ascend the throne, except such as have on their body some blemish or mark, whether from disease or accident. In order to preclude the danger of a disputed succession, it was formerly the custom to mark every youth that was not intended for the presumptive heirship by a wound on some conspicuous part, such as the nose or ear, his children, if unblemished, having still a right to the throne. The sovereign and nobility in Assam live in thatched huts, with walls of bamboo mat, supported by saul posts, and built in the fashion of Bengal with arched ridges and mud floors, each apartment being a separate hut. According to the ancient Assamese con-

stitution there are three great officers of state, named Gohaing, which offices are hereditary in three great families. The word appears to be derived from the ancient language of Assam, and the title is peculiar to the royal family. The Bura Boruya is the fourth great officer, and next to him come six functionaries denominated Phukons. By far the greater part of the land in Assam is granted to persons termed Pykes, each of whom is held bound to work gratuitously four months in the year, either for the king or whatever person the royal pleasure substitutes. These people either work for their lord in whatever trade they are skilled, or pay him a composition regulated by custom. These pykes are placed under four ranks of officers, supposed to command one thousand, one hundred, twenty, or ten men, but these numbers are in general only imaginary, and the whole militia a mere rabble, without arms, discipline, or courage. The most important jurisdiction is the province of Camroop, adjacent to Bengal, the greater part of which was wrested from the Moguls early in the reign of Aurengzebe. The rajas are the original petty chieftains of the country, paying a certain tribute, and several of them are Garrows and other unconverted tribes.

The officers under whom the pykes or serfs of the crown are placed, the rajas, and the farmers of the revenue, have charge of the police. It is alleged that the guilty who can bribe, escape with impunity, while the punishments of the convicted poor are atrociously cruel. Capital punishments extend to the whole family of a rebel—parents, sister, wife, and children; it appears probable that it was from this source that the rafts were formerly supplied, which were frequently seen floating down past Goalpara stuck full with human heads. All the domestics are slaves, and they are numerous, every man of rank having several, mostly procured among the necessitous, who mortgage themselves. Some were exported; and before the British predominance, about one hundred of pure caste were annually sold in Bengal. The girls were chiefly bought by professional prostitutes, and cost from twelve to fifteen rupees. A Cooch boy cost 25 rupees, a Kolita 50, slaves of impure tribes were sold to the Garrows. No accurate estimate of the population can be formed, but it is known to be extremely scanty in proportion to the extent of surface, more than three-fourths of which is covered with jungle. The principal places are Jorhaut, Gerghong, Rungpoor, and Gohati; but they scarcely deserve the name of towns, being mere collections of hovels, for in this wretched country, under the old government, there were no shops and but few markets. There are the remains, however, of several remarkable military causeways, which must have been constructed with great labour, but it is not known in what era.

The following are some of the principal castes and tribes of Assam. The Rarhi Brahmins have long obtained the spiritual guidance of the raja and his principal functionaries, but there is a distinct race of Brahmins designated as Assamese. They are vaidikas of Kanoje, and are said to have been introduced from thence by the Cooch raja, Viswa Singh.—Before their arrival there were learned men among the Kolitas, who were gooroos to the people generally.—Many Camroop Brahmins are now settled in Assam, some of whom are said to be learned in Hindoo science, but very few of either class worship the Sactis, or female destructive energies, although some Pundits are skilled in astrology and magic. Some of the Assamese vaidikas have degraded themselves, by becoming Varna, and instructing the impure tribes, a degree of turpitude to which none of the Bengal Vaidikas have as yet submitted.

In the eastern part of Assam Proper, beyond Koliyabar, besides the Khamties, Meerees, and Dophlas, the

most numerous class are the Ahams or governing nation. Those legitimately descended from the companions of Khumtai still retain the principal offices of state, and may be considered the existing nobility. It is generally understood that the Ahams, on their arrival, were not accompanied by any females, but espoused those of the country, and the royal family subsequently frequently intermarried with daughters of the adjacent chiefs; but since the introduction of caste the Ahams have restricted their marriages to their own tribe. The whole have now adopted the language of Bengal as their colloquial dialect, have renounced the eating of beef, and three-fourths have adopted the Brahminical doctrines as taught by the followers of Madhava Acharya The Kolitas, many of whom are settled in the Rungpoor district, are also a numerous tribe in Assam Proper.—Those who can read are called Kayasthas, and are the religious guides for most of the others, and also for many of the Cooch, with whom they intermarry. They speak the language of Bengal, and have nearly the same customs as the pure Hindoos of that country, only they are still more strict as to eating and drinking. By the Bengalese Brahmins they are considered pure Sudras, and their features are less strongly marked as being of Chinese origin than those of the Cooch, who are very numerous in the Assamese portion of Camroop, more especially in Dorong. There are a considerable number of Heluya keyots who cultivate the ground, and keyots who fish. The first are pure, and assume the title of kaibarta; the latter are impure, but have not adopted the Mahomedan religion, as those in the British district of Rungpoor have done. The Moriyas speak the Bengalese language, but have abandoned themselves to the eating of beef and the drinking of strong liquors. In the province of Camroop there are many Moslems, but so degenerated into heathen superstition, that even the faithful of Goalpara reject their communion.

Nothing satisfactory has as yet been ascertained respecting the ancient history or religion of Assam, the national traditions having a strong tinge of the fabulous. According to these, many ages ago two brothers, named Khunlai and Khuntai, came to a hill named Khorai Khorong, which is situated south from Ghergong, the ancient capital, Khunlai taking with him some attendants, and the god Cheng went towards the south-east; Khuntai remained in the vicinity of the hill Chorai Khorong, and kept in his possession the god Chung, who is still considered by his descendants as their tutelary deity. These two brothers are described as having descended from heaven, and the sovereigns of Assam have always assumed the title of Swerga Raja, which possibly may have meant some part of Tibet or China. It has been conjectured that when these strangers first arrived, the country called Assam proper was governed by twelve petty chiefs, who without opposition submitted to them being so superior in dignity and education; this however is disputed by the Cacharies, who allege that prior to this epoch the country belonged to them. The original territory occupied by Khuntai included two very long islands formed by the windings of the Brahmaputra, together with some of the lands adjacent, on both banks of that great river.

Thirteen princes in regular succession from father to son, continued to govern these dominions with great success according to the rules of their ancestors. They eat beef, pork, and all other foods that shock the piety of Brahminical Hindoos, and drank wine without restraint or remorse of conscience The Deodhaings were then their spiritual guides, performing worship to the god Chung with great mystery and secrecy, and possessing some books called Bulongji, written in a character which appears on the old coin, and which seems to have a strong affinity to that

of Ava. These books are said to be composed in a language which was formerly spoken at the court of Assam, and are reported to contain a chronicle of their kings, whose names were as follow:

1. Khuntai, 8. Chupinong,
2. Chukapha, 9. Chhuchong,
3. Chutaupha, 10. Churang,
4. Chubinong, 11. Chujang,
5. Chuinong, 12. Chupkuk,
6. Tukophi, 13. Chukum.
7. Chhachonong,

All names strongly resembling the Chinese.

From the beginning of the 17th century the Brahminical doctrines appear to have been gradually encroaching on the old superstitions, and about the middle of that age effected the converversion of the sovereign; since which date the governing party have entirely adopted the language of Bengal, which has become so prevalent, that the original Assamese, spoken so late as the reign of Aurengzebe, is almost become a dead language. Brahmins of various degrees of purity have long been the spiritual guides of the court and of three-fourths of the people; but there remain many impure tribes who still abandon themselves to the eating of beef and the drinking of strong liquors. In the parts adjacent to Bengal there are many Mahomedans; but they have degenerated into heathen superstition, so that they are rejected even by those of Rungpoor. It does not appear that the Christian religion has ever penetrated into this region. In 1793, when Capt. Welsh expelled the Mahamari priest and his rabble from the capital, they retired to Byangmara, south from Seediya.

Although the Assamese have traditions, and it is said books, in the ancient language, detailing their history before the Mahomedan invasion, the information collected is as yet too imperfect to be depended upon. They are first noticed by Mogul authorities in 1638, during the reign of Shah Jehan, when they sailed down the Brahmaputra, and invaded Bengal; but were repulsed by that emperor's officers, and eventually lost some of their own frontier provinces. In the reign of Aurengzebe, his ablest general, Meer Jumlah, advanced from Cooch Bahar to attempt the conquest of Assam, on which occasion he met with no obstacles to his advance, except such as were presented by the nature of the country, until he arrived at the capital, Gergong. When the season of the rains began, the Assamese came out of their hiding-places, and harassed the imperial army, which became very sickly, and the flower of the Afghans, Persians, and Moguls, perished. The rest tried to escape along the narrow causeways through the morasses, but few ever reached Bengal; and the Assamese re-conquered the western provinces, which had been for some time in the possession of the Moguls. After this no more expeditions were attempted against Assam, which the Mahomedans of Hindostan have ever since viewed with singular horror, as a region only inhabited by infidels, hobgoblins, and devils.

Hitherto the Assamese had been a warlike and enterprizing people, and their princes worthy of the government; but after their conversion by the Brahmins the nation sunk into the most abject state of pusillanimity towards foreigners, and into internal turbulence and confusion. About A D 1770 the power of the spiritual teachers had acquired such strength, and their insolence had become so intolerable, that the reigning raja, with the view of curbing their pride, burned a building that had been erected contrary to law by one of them named Mahamari, who guided a multitude of the lowest and most ignorant of the people. A rebellion which ensued was suppressed by the energy of the raja, but the insurrection burst forth with increased force under his son and successor Gaurinath, who was driven from the throne by the base adherents of the Mahamari priest, who attempted to fill it with his own nephew. The dethroned raja, however, having placed himself under the protection of Lord Cornwallis, that nobleman, a short time before his departure for

Europe, sent Captain Welsh, in 1793, with 1,100 sepoys. who placed Gaurinath on the throne of his ancestors, and shortly afterwards returned to Bengal.

During the insurrection of the populace under the Mahamari priest, the most horrid excesses were committed, and most of the genuine Assamese men of rank were compelled to fly for refuge to a large island formed by the Brahmaputra. In these disastrous circumstances, the only individual who evinced any courage or enterprize was one of the hereditary counsellors of state named the Bura Gohaing, who, on Captain Welsh's return to Bengal, seized on the whole authority, expelled the Mahamari, and rendered the future rajas of Assam mere pageants under himself. On the death of raja Gaurinath, which he is said to have accelerated, he expelled the lawful heir, but, to save appearances and conciliate the natives, he set up a boy sprung from a spurious branch of the royal family, whom he kept under the strictest seclusion from public affairs.

Many years ago the Bengal government, in consequence of orders from Europe, established a salt agent at Goalpara to monopolize the Assam salt-trade; but after several years' trial, the loss sustained was so great, that the Marquis Cornwallis, who always abhorred petty traffic, ordered it to be suppressed. Mr. Daniel Raush, a respectable Hanoverian, succeeded as principal merchant, but soon found himself creditor to the raja, the Bura Gohaing, and to many other chiefs, who had the address to get possession of his property, in spite of his caution and long experience of their bad faith. In 1796 he quitted his factory at Goalpara, entered Assam, and proceeded to the capital, to endeavour to effect some compromise for his claims, amounting to three lacks of rupees; but on the route he was treacherously assassinated by the raja of Dring's (or Dorong) followers, and had his pinnaces pillaged, and papers destroyed. In 1801 the Marquis Wellesley, compassionating the distress of his widow and destitute family, despatched Comul Lochun Nundy, a native agent, to the court of Assam, to recover the arrears; in furtherance of which object he furnished him with letters to the raja and prime minister explanatory of his mission, and reminding them that they were wholly indebted for the re-establishment of their authority to the British succours under Captain Welsh. The agent Nundy proceeded accordingly to Jorhaut, the existing capital, where he found the raja and his minister ostensibly fully disposed to render him every assistance, but in private obstructing him so effectually, that after being for two years amused with promises and sham trials, he would have returned from that miserable court as empty-handed as he went, had he not on a frontier station recovered ten thousand rupees from a custom-house officer, who had less power or more honesty than his superiors. Indeed Comul Lochun's description of the general anarchy, the injustice exercised, and the horrid cruelties perpetrated by whoever had the power, excites surprise that all the lower classes who had the means did not migrate into the British territories, which were close at hand, and contained immense tracts of unoccupied land.

In 1806 Sir George Barlow made another effort to recover something for Mr Raush's family, who offered to accept twenty thousand rupees in lieu of their whole claims, but with equally bad success. The raja and his minister on this occasion, among other excuses for their want of punctuality, assigned the total anarchy of their country, and solicited the assistance of the British government to subdue the insurgents and tranquillize their subjects, an undertaking that would have cost one hundred times the amount claimed. After this evasive reply, the absolute inutility of addressing the Assam state on the subject appeared clearly established; yet, to leave nothing untried, in February 1813 another letter was despatched, recalling the circumstance to the ra-

ja's, or rather to his minister's, recollection, and expressing the expectation of the British government that he would effect some equitable settlement. In his reply, received during the course of 1814, the reigning raja acknowledges the receipt of the letter addressed to his brother, the late raja, and then proceeds to describe the unfortunate condition of his country. From the eastward and northward the people of Nora, Khamti, Dophla, and Mahamari, had assembled and invaded his dominions, while on the Bijnee frontier a robber, named Manick Ray, had made repeated inroads, laid waste their pergunnahs, and plundered the Kandar custom-house. The tenour of this reply was as unsatisfactory as the former had been; but as the case did not warrant a stronger interference than remonstrance, all further proceedings on the subject were suspended.

About and prior to this period the western confines of Assam were much infested by bands of freebooters, principally Burkindauzes from Upper Hindostan, who, availing themselves of the local peculiarities of the Bijnee estate, had long been in the practice of waging a system of plunder and incursion on the Assam villages which lie contiguous to the Bijnee frontier. The first regularly organized band of this description consisted of the followers of Gholaum Ali Beg, a Hindostany Mogul, who had been entertained by the Assam rajas to fight against the Mahamari, the inveterate enemies of the Assamese principality. The Bura Gohaing, soon after his usurpation, dismissed Gholaum Ali and his band, and, as they asserted, turned them out of the country without paying them their arrears. On this event Gholaum Ali took up a position on the confines of Bijnee, beyond the Ayi river, from whence he continued to make incursions into Assam. The first attack was on the Kandar chokey, or custom-house, in 1805, at the head of 150 men, when he stormed the post, and carried off such a booty, that on twelve of the gang, who were shortly after seized in Mymunsingh, sixteen hundred rupees were found. From this time forward Gholaum Ali continued to lurk on the confines of Assam and Bijnee, with about eighty followers, not only ravaging the frontier villages of Assam, but occasionally invading the interior, and plundering boats of valuable merchandize as they passed down the Manas river, which separates Bijnee from Assam.

During this period of anarchy, the above adventurer is said to have obtained a kind of sovereignty over sixteen villages on the eastern bank of the Manas, from which he derived a considerable revenue, readily paid by the inhabitants for protection, but he was at length vanquished by another corps of freebooters, led by a Hindostany Rajpoot named Manick Ray, who drove Gholaum Ali into Bootan, and usurped his lucrative post on the frontiers of Bijnee, where he long harboured, doing infinite mischief to that branch of the Goalpara trade navigated on the Manas, and making nightly plundering incursions into Assam. Both he and his predecessor Gholaum Ali Beg, were frequently pursued by the detachment of British Sepoys stationed at Jughigopa, but the orders of government being peremptory against passing the Ayi river, all their efforts were frustrated, and from the Bijnee raja no coercion could be looked for, as he was strongly suspected of sharing in the profits of their depredations. Under these circumstances, the harassed tenantry of the adjacent pergunnahs mostly gave up all idea of having a fixed residence, retiring at night into the British provinces, where they kept their women and children, and re-crossing in the morning, to cultivate their fields in Assam.

Such was the deplorable condition of this fertile country in 1814, at which period the great bulk of the people were extremely anxious to throw off the yoke of the Bura Gohaing, but such on the other hand was his tyranny and their pusillanimity, that his rule was nevertheless acquiesced in with the most unqualified submission. The rightful heir to

the throne at that date was Birjinauth Coomar, who was prevented by the magistrate of Rungpoor from levying war against the usurper, with a body of troops raised in Bengal. It was then generally supposed that the Bura Gohaing, knowing that Birjinauth was the legitimate heir, had disqualified him for the sovereignty, by slitting or otherwise disfiguring one of his ears, in which case he could only reign in the name of one of his children. The next sovereign, Chunder Khant, being dethroned by the Bura Gohaing, fled into the British territories, and Poorindra Singh was placed on the throne, but soon after compelled to follow the route of his predecessor.

The Bura Gohaing then seated himself on the throne; but the time of this old king-maker was now come, for Chunder Khant having repaired to Ava, and procured assistance from the Burmese, returned with an army and compelled the Bura Gohaing to seek refuge in the British territories, where he took up his abode in the vicinity of Jughigopa. In 1821 he re-entered Assam with a body of troops which he had collected in Bootan, but was routed by the Burmese auxiliaries of Chunder Khant, who soon after endeavouring to get rid of his too powerful allies by treachery, was driven from the throne and compelled to repair to Bengal. In June, 1822, Menghee Maha Theluah, the commander-in-chief of the Burmese forces, was proclaimed raja of Assam, the subjugation of which he had now completed, subordinate to the sovereign of Ava.

Now began the never-failing aggressions that invariably take place when a prosperous native power comes in contact with the boundaries of the British dominions, which at last terminated in a rupture about the muddy island of Shapuree, on the coast of Chittagong. A British detachment under Colonel Richards, then entered Assam, and in the course of 1825, expelled the Burmese usurpers and obtained complete possession of the country, which must henceforward be virtually considered an integral portion of the British empire in India. Indeed, without population and with an unknown frontier, this phantom of a kingdom could not for a year exist on its own resources, it must consequently be supported by its conquerors; a civil and military establishment appointed; a fleet of boats maintained on the Brahmaputra, and many other expensive drains created on the Bengal treasury, such is the uncontrollable progress of events in India.—(*T. Buchanan, Sisson, Public MS. Documents, Wade, Klaproth, Comul Lochun Nundy, Lieutenants Burlton, Bedford, Ker, N. Jones, Neufville and Wilcox, Abdul Russool, Gardner, &c.*)

ASSODNAGUR (*Assadnagara, the city of lions*)—A district in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north-east by the rivers Neera and Beema. Like the rest of the province, it has an irregular surface, but is nevertheless populous and fertile, having many hill streams for the purposes of irrigation. The chief towns are Punderpoor, Khattaow, Nanzerch, and Salpa

ASSEREE.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, forty-five miles S by E. from Damaun. Lat. 19° 47′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E.

ASSEWAN.—A town in the province of Oude about a mile from Meahgunge, and overlooking a small lake. Lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 86° 31′ E.

ASSYE.—A small town in the province of Berar, twenty-eight miles north from Jaulna On the 23d September 1803, a battle was fought near this place, between the British army under Gen. Wellesley, consisting of 4,500 men, 2,000 of whom were Europeans, and the combined armies of Dowlet Row Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja, amounting to 30,000. In spite of the disparity of numbers, the British were completely victorious, although with severe loss in proportion to their numbers, *viz.*

Europeans killed	198
Natives ditto......................	230
Europeans wounded............	442
Natives ditto........................	696
Total......	1,566

The confederates fled from the field of battle, leaving about 1,200 slain, ninety-eight pieces of cannon, seven standards, their whole camp equipage and a large quantity of ammunition. This victory is the more remarkable, as above 10,000 of Sindia's infantry had been disciplined, and were in part officered by French and other Europeans.

Astoun.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eight miles from Teary. Lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E.

Atangheery.—A large village in the Carnatic, on the Marawa coast, district of Madura, where there is a commodious choultry, and a ferry across that branch of the Vagaroo which here disembogues itself into the sea. It stands about twelve miles travelling distance east from Ramnad. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Atchera.—A town of considerable extent in the southern Concan or Bhoonslah country, fifty-six miles north from Goa. Lat. 16° 11′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E. It may be approached by sea within two miles, where the anchorage is in five fathoms with a muddy bottom. It was formerly a place of great reputed sanctity, and a notorious depôt of pirated goods; but in 1818 it was captured by a British detachment, which event completed the conquest of Salsee, a district about 120 miles in circumference, which had belonged to the Peshwa.

Attair.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, and forty-six miles S. E. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 44′ N., lon. 78° 29′ E.

Attara.—A town in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles north from Calinger; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 80° 35′ E.

Attaveesee.—A large district in the southern division of the Gujerat province, between the 20th and 21st parallels of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the sea and the city of Surat. It is intersected by many streams flowing from the eastern hills, but not by any river of magnitude. The principal towns are Damaun, Dhurrumpoor and Baunsda. In 1802 this district, which was mortgaged to the British government by the Guicowar, yielded an annual revenue of six and a-half lacks of rupees.

Attersoomba.—A town in the Gujerat province, twenty-four miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 73° 3′ E.

Attock (*Atac, a limit.*) This town is situated on the east side of the Indus, and to the present day retains the ancient name of Varanas or Benares; but it is more generally known by that of Attock. The old fortress was built by Acber, A D. 1581 Lat. 33° 56′ E., lon. 71° 57′ E.

About ten miles to the north of Attock the Indus is seen issuing through the mountains by a number of channels, which are reduced to two where it receives the Cabul river. At this point of junction there are many rocks, through which both rivers dash with much impetuosity and noise, but afterwards they collect into one bed, and proceed through the mountains with a deep and narrow stream, between high perpendicular ridges of rock. When it reaches the fort of Attock, the Indus is about 260 yards broad (on the 18th June 1809), but the channel is too deep, and the current too rapid to admit of its being accurately sounded. The banks are of black stone polished by the force of the stream and the white sand it contains, so as to shine like marble. In the midst are the famous rocks of Jemalia and Kemalia, but the reported whirlpool does not rage in the month of June.

The modern fort of Attock (the residence of the Afghan government in 1809) stands on a low hillock on the east bank Its figure is that of a parallelogram, having the shortest faces (those parallel to the river) about 400 yards long, and other sides about double that extent. The walls are of polished stone; but although

the place makes a handsome show, it is commanded by a rough hill, from which it is only separated by a ravine, and being situated on a slope almost the whole of the interior, and the reverse of the walls on their faces, are visible from the opposite side. The town was formerly considerable, but is very much decayed, having been since 1818 in the possession of Runjeet Singh, the Seik Rajah of Lahore. On the Afghan side of the river opposite to Attock is a small village distinguished by a kind of fort erected by Nadir Shah, and a fine aqueduct made by some former chief of the Khuttick tribe to irrigate the contiguous lands. Notwithstanding the rapidity of the river here, it is easily passed, both in boats and on the inflated hides of oxen.

It is remarkable that the three great invaders of Hindostan, Alexander, Timour, and Nadir Shah, in three distant ages, and with views and talents extremely different, advanced by the same route with hardly any deviation. Alexander had the merit of discovering the way: after passing the mountains he encamped at Alexandria Paropamisana, on the same site with the modern city of Candahar, and having subdued or conciliated the natives on the north west bank of the Indus, he crossed the river at Taxila, now Attock, the only place where the stream is so tranquil that a bridge can be thrown over it.—(*Elphinstone*, *Rennell*, *Wilford*, *Dr. Robertson*, *&c.*)

ATTOWAH PEEPLEA.—A town, in the province of Malwa, twenty-four miles S.E. from Dewass. In 1820, it contained 500 houses and was the head of a pergunnah. Lat. 22° 48′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

ATTYAH.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Jelalpoor, forty-four miles N.W. by N. from Dacca. Lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 89° 48′ E.

AUGGUR.—A large town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Sindia, forty miles N. by E. from Oojein; lat. 23° 43′ N., lon. 76° 1′. This place is beautifully situated on a rocky eminence, between two lakes or tanks 1,598 feet barometrical measurement above the level of the sea. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and has a well-built ghurry or native fortification within. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah, and contained five thousand houses; but with the exception of one street, the interior, although of considerable extent, is a mere aggregation of mud buildings.—(*Malcolm*, *Fullarton*, *&c.*)

AUGUR.—This is the name of a modern geographical subdivision of that portion of the province of Lahore situated between the Indus and Hydaspes, but little is known respecting its topography, except that, according to native reports, it contains several salt mountains, with which substance the soil of this quarter of Hindostan is every where impregnated. The division of Augur lies between the thirty-second and thirty-third degrees of north latitude, has the Indus to the west, and Sinde Sager to the south, is thinly peopled, and comprehends no town of note. In some old maps it is denominated Ghepp or Dun Ghepp.

AUL.—A town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, fifty miles from the town of Cuttack in a northeastern direction. In 1813 the tribute paid by the proprietor was 26,680 rupees; his remaining profit was estimated at 15,000 rupees per annum. This is a valuable property, and although only tributary, is situated within the Mogulbundy, or that portion of the district subject to the British regulations. In extreme dimensions it is reckoned twenty miles from north to south, by about ten from east to west.—(*Richardson*, *&c.*)

AUMNIER.—A large and populous town situated in the province of Gundwana, and on the river Wurda, which is here in January a very small stream and easily passed. It runs over a rocky bottom, and forms some small cascades. Lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E., fifty miles N. by W. from the city of Nagpoor.

AURUNGABAD.

A large province of the Deccan, situated principally between the eighteenth and twenty-first degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Gujerat, Candeish, and Berar; on the south by Bejapoor and Beeder; to the east it has Berar and Hyderabad; and on the west the Indian ocean. In length it may be estimated at 300 miles, by 160 the average breadth. The courses of the rivers Neera and Beema mark its separation on the south-west from the contiguous province of Bejapoor.

This province is also known by the names of Ahmednuggur and Dowletabad; the first having been its capital during the existence of the Nizam Shahy dynasty, and the latter during a short-lived dynasty established by Mallek Amber, an Abyssinian, from 1600 to 1635. Aurungabad was partially subdued under the reign of Acber, from which period its limits were in a constant state of fluctuation, until that of Shah Jehan in 1634, when Dowletabad, the capital, being taken, the whole country was transformed into a soubah of the Mogul empire, then at its zenith. On this event the seat of government was removed from Dowletabad to the neighbouring town of Gurka, which becoming the favourite residence of Aurungzebe while viceroy of the Deccan, recived the name of Aurungabad, which appellation was subsequently communicated to the province. At present the principal modern territorial and political subdivisions, beginning from the north-west, are the following, *viz.*

1. Jowaur.
2. Callianee.
3. Bombay.
4. Baglana.
5. Singumnere.
6. Dowletabad.
7. Jalnapoor.
8. Bheer.
9. Futtehabad.
10. Perraindah.
11. Sholapoor.
12. Ahmednuggur.
13. Jooneer.

The surface of this province is very irregular, and in general mountainous, particularly towards the western ghauts, where the hills attain a great altitude. The tract to the east of the ghauts, including much the larger portion of the soubah, is also an elevated region, forming part of the table-land of the Deccan, rarely less than 1,800 feet above the level of the sea, and frequently much more. The territory consequently abounds with natural fortresses and strong holds, which enabled the Maharattas, whose native country it is, to give such infinite trouble to Aurengzebe and his generals. Rice is the grain chiefly cultivated; the other vegetable productions are much the same as in other parts of the Deccan. The gardens and fields in the immediate neighbourhood of the villages are very generally enclosed by hedges of the prickly pear and the milk plant, the first of which forms an excellent fence. The climate is particularly favourable for the production of European fruits, which arrive here at a greater degree of perfection than in any other quarter of Hindostan, more especially the peach, strawberry, and a very fine variety of the grape, of a large size and cylindrical form. The nectarine has been planted and borne fruit at Seroor, near Poona. The figs are delicious, and the melon, which is universally reared, rivals in flavour the choicest fruit of an English green-house. The oranges are large, but inferior to those of the Silhet district, and the unrivalled orange of Daoudcaundy in Tipera, in which last the pulp adheres to a very thick skin only by fibres.

Aurungabad possesses no rivers of magnitude, although it contains the sources of many, such as the Beema, Neera, and Godavery, which do not swell to any considerable dimensions until they quit its limits. On the banks of the two first horses for the Maharatta cavalry were formerly reared in great numbers; but though

a hardy breed, they are neither strong nor handsome, although they easily supported the light weight of their predatory riders. The bazars of the cities and larger towns have a sufficiently animated appearance; but in the smaller communities, the dwellings being generally without windows, or other apertures towards the streets, and roofed with flat earthen terraces, present scarcely any thing to the eye but dreary masses of dead wall. The religious edifices are distinguished by various architectural peculiarities from the old temples usually seen in Upper Hindostan, as well as from those more to the south; the porticoes are almost universally large, and occasionally nearly as large as the whole sanctuary. In some towns the pagoda rises in the form of a twelve-sided pyramid, divided into compartments, each ornamented with a mythological device in bas-relief; while in others, where the form is quadrangular, the roof terminates in a huge elevation of a cupola shape.

Much the larger portion of this province, and almost the entire sea-coast, having long been possessed by the Maharattas, fair maritime commerce never flourished, piracy by sea and plundering by land having always been their favourite employment, until coerced by the strong arm of the British government. Until A.D. 1818 three-fourths of Aurungabad were subject to the Peshwa; and the remainder (with some exceptions) to the Nizam; but since that eventful year, and the overthrow of the former, nearly the whole has, directly or indirectly, become subordinate to the British nation, with reservation of the rights of certain feudatory chieftains, whose territories will be noticed under their respective heads.

The population of this province, and more especially of the north-eastern quarter, is in proportion much below that of the best British districts, the proportion of religious being about one Mahomedan to twenty Hindoos. The Maharatta language is principally used; but there are also various local dialects in common use, while Hindostany and Persian are current among the higher classes; the first in conversation, and the last in the revenue records. These last (the nobility) have now fallen, probably never to rise again; but no doubt the great majority of the humbler classes must, in the course of time, have their condition ameliorated by the introduction of British laws and institutions. It is a very remarkable circumstance, however, that although this province has been the grand cradle of the predatory bands that for more than a century past desolated Hindostan, and for two years (1817 and 1818) had been the seat of external invasion and internal warfare, yet in 1820 no part of the whole Deccan, or Southern India, exhibited such an appearance of undisturbed tranquillity and repose. Crimes of violence were rare, and highway robbery so uncommon, that it was said a single armed man might carry a lack of rupees in perfect security from the Krishna to the Godavery.—(*Fullarton, Wilks, Ferishta, &c.*)

AURUNGABAD (*the place of the throne*).—The capital of the province above described, situated in lat. 19° 54′ N., lon. 75° 33′ E. This city, originally named Gurka, stands a few miles from Dowletabad, which being taken from the transient dynasty of Mallek Amber, in 1634, the Moguls removed their head-quarters to Gurka; which having subsequently become the favourite residence of Aurungzebe, it received a more sonorous appellation. It continued for some time a metropolis, after the modern Nizams became independent of Delhi, until they found its vicinity to the Poona Maharattas inconvenient, and migrated to Hyderabad. It is still within the limits of the Nizam's dominions, but, like many other famous cities of Hindostan, is greatly fallen from its ancient grandeur, presenting the usual symptoms of a deserted capital, a scanty population among extensive ruins.

The river Kowlah, a mountain stream, over which there are two substantial bridges, separates the city from its principal suburb, the Begum Poora; on the north side is marshy ground of some extent, in which rice is cultivated; and on the left, entering by the Delhi gate, is a considerable tank, overgrown with rank aquatic plants, from both of which unwholesome exhalations arise. The central parts of the city are also very low, indeed almost on a level with the marshy ground. For two-thirds of the year the winds here are from the W.S.W., while easterly winds prevail in November, December, and January. The range of the thermometer, during these three months, is from 50° to 86°, during the twenty-four hours the alternations of heat and cold being as great as they are sudden. During the hot months the range of the thermometer is from 78° to 100° Fahrenheit. The average supply of rain may be taken at thirty-six inches; but for the three monsoons prior to 1826 there had not been even twenty-one inches. Intermittent fevers are here prevalent at all seasons. The military cantonments stand on a rocky plain about a mile to the south-west of the city, and is reckoned healthy, while the city itself is known to be the reverse. Tropical fruits of every description are produced here in abundance, the grapes and oranges being scarcely inferior to those of Europe.

Aurungabad is situated in a hollow, and when approached from the north-east, its white domes and minars are seen rising from below amidst a grove of trees. Its locality has been particularly favourable for ensuring an abundant supply of excellent water, which is brought in stone conduits from the neigbouring hills, and distributed through earthen pipes to the numerous stone reservoirs in every quarter, from some of which fountains spring up in the centre. The main street or bazar is nearly two miles long, of good width, and resembling in its architecture the principal street of Oojein; at one extremity is the spacious quadrangle of the chowk, and at a short distance a handsome modern market, named the shahgunge. The ruins of Aurengzebe's palace still cover an extensive space, but they are rapidly disappearing. The celebrated mausoleum, erected by his order to the memory of his daughter, has some resemblance to the Tauje at Agra, but in every respect less imposing. Its domes are of white marble, and clustered like those of the Tauje, but inferior in size, fulness, and splendour, and throughout the whole there is a comparative poverty in the materials; in many places stucco is substituted for marble, and the exquisite mosaic bas-reliefs are wanting. The fakeer's tomb is an insignificant structure, and chiefly remarkable for its fine reservoirs, with their numerous *jet d'eaux*, artificial cascades, and water mills. Connected with this tomb is a mosque, and many other mosques are dispersed over the town, but none of remarkable structure.

In the bazar, which is extensive, various kinds of commodities, European as well as native, particularly silks, are exposed for sale; and the population, although much reduced, is still considerable. In 1820, Rajah Govind Buksh (the brother of Rajah Chundoo Laul, the prime minister at Hyderabad) resided at Hyderabad as governor of the northern portion of the Nizam's dominions in this quarter. The population of Aurungabad gradually decreased until 1815, when without any apparent cause the city began to revive. In 1825 it contained about 60,000 persons, and covered a spot of ground about seven miles in circumference. Travelling distance from Poona 186 miles; from Bombay, by Poona, 284; from Hyderabad 295; from Madras 647; from Delhi 750; and from Calcutta 1,022 miles.—(*Fullarton, Calcutta Medical Transactions, Wilks, the Duke of Wellington, Fitzclarence, &c.*)

AUTGHUR.—This place stands in the midst of a wild and woody country, about fourteen miles N.W. from

the city of Cuttack. On the north it is bounded by the tributary state of Durpun, and on the west by the fortress of Tigria, and its extreme dimensions are fifteen miles from east to west, by twelve from north to south. Owing to the quantity and density of the jungle, the country is reckoned very unhealthy, and in 1813 the annual tribute paid by the zemindar was only 6,868 rupees The articles produced are rice, and various sorts of grain, tobacco, cotton, sugarcane, and oil.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

AUTMASLICK.—A talook in the province of Orissa opposite to the Boad zemindarry, thus named because it was formerly covered by eight persons in succession. It consists almost entirely of hills and jungles, and in the triennial settlement of 1818 was assessed at only 800 sicca rupees.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

AUTOOR.—A town in the Hyderabad province, twenty-five miles west by south from the city of Hyderabad Lat 17° 17′ N, lon. 78° 10′ E

AVA AND THE BURMESE EMPIRE.

An extensive and once powerful empire in the south-eastern extremity of Asia, where, until the late war, it occupied, either directly or influentially, almost half of the region described in maps as India beyond the Ganges. At present the Burmese empire, strictly speaking, is limited to the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, Arracan, half of Martaban, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and the Mergui isles having been ceded to the British government, and Junk Ceylon recovered by the Siamese, while Assam and all the adjacent petty states have been liberated from its yoke. How far its influence now extends to the east of the Martaban or Saluen river is uncertain, but several of the Shan tribes are known to be tributary, and also to furnish on emergencies a contingency of troops. On the north, Ava is bounded by Assam and the adjacent petty states, on the south by Siam, the sea, and the British district of Martaban; to the west it has the sea, Arracan, and Bengal, and on the east, Siam and the Shan nations. In length, including tributaries, it may be roughly estimated at 560 miles (from lat. 16° to lat. 24° N.) by an average breadth of about 300 miles This is given merely as an approximation, for beyond the banks of the Irawady little is known respecting the interior. The genuine Burmese designate themselves Mranmas, and their country Mranma.

North from Pegu, on both sides of the Irawady, belongs to the Burmese, who for two centuries have been the most powerful nation in this part of Asia By Europeans their country is generally called Ava, from a corrupt pronunciation of Aénwa, the vulgar name of the capital, and the names Mranma, Burma, Birma, and Brahma, often given to the nation, are probably all corruptions of Marama used by the people of Arracan. The principal rivers are the Irawady, the Kienduem, the Saluen or Martaban river, the Pegu river, and the Lokiang. At present the only seacoast possessed by the Burmese is in the districts of Rangoon and Basseen, at the southern extremity of Pegu. In Ava Proper the difference between the east and west banks of the Irawady is remarkable; the east being barren, arid, and parched up, especially in the neighbourhood of the petroleum wells; whilst the west is fertile and well supplied with moisture, and yields in abundance almost every tropical production. The country between Prome and Tongho is hilly, without navigable rivers or practicable roads, and almost destitute of fresh water.

The seasons in Ava, which resemble those of Bengal, may be divided into three, the cold, the hot, and the rainy. The first begins in December and lasts until February, during which time the morning fogs are dense, and last until near ten o'clock, when the power of the sun's rays dissipates them; the hot weather follows and lasts until May, when the rains set in,

and pour without interruption until October. Judging from the appearance and vigour of the natives, the climate must be very healthy. The intense heat which precedes the commencement of the rains is short, and incommodes but very little. Exclusive of the delta formed by the mouths of the Irawady, there is very little alluvial soil in the Birman dominions. The soil of Pegu is remarkably fertile, and produces as abundant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Further north the country becomes irregular and higher; but at present the Burmese territories south of the capital do not contain a single elevation sufficiently great to deserve the name of mountain. The plains and vallies near the rivers are exceedingly fertile, yielding abundance of wheat, and the various small grains and legumes that grow in Hindostan. The sugar-cane, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits are all indigenous. In a district lying to the north of Amarapura, named Palongmiou, the tea plant grows, but its leaf is very inferior to the article imported from China, and is seldom used but as a pickle. Besides the teak tree, which grows in most parts of Ava, there is almost every description of timber known in India.

According to former accounts the kingdom of Ava abounded with minerals, but a more close inspection of the country has not confirmed that report. In the mountainous parts, towards the frontiers of China, mines of gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, amethysts, garnets, chrysolites, and jasper are said to abound, but these precious stones do not appear ever to have formed a considerable article of export or of traffic in the bazar. Marble of an excellent texture, and susceptible of the highest polish, is found a few miles from Amarapura, where it is monopolized by the government, and employed in fabricating the innumerable images of Gaudma scattered over the country. The most remarkable product of the Burmese empire is petroleum oil, an article of universal use throughout the provinces, and yielding a large revenue to the government. Neither Pegu nor Ava are rich in metallic ores, with the exception of tin and antimony. The consumption of iron is principally supplied from the great mountain of Pouka, on the east side of the Irawady, and near the lat. of 21° north. Besides petroleum, the other mineral saline productions are coal, saltpetre, soda, and culinary salt. The mountains about twenty miles to the north of the city of Ava, and from 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, contain many plants common to the Himalaya chain. The climate, however, of Ava Proper is not very favourable, the rains being seldom sufficiently abundant, so that without artificial irrigation, all the neighbouring countries are more productive of grain.

The great internal traffic is that which subsists between the southern and northern provinces, in which the first sends the necessaries of life, rice, salt, and fish to Ava, receiving in return terra japonica, palm, sugar, petroleum oil, onions, tamarinds, limestone, paper, lacquered-ware, orpiment, gold, wrought silk and cottons, brass-ware, coarse cutlery, weapons, and vermilion. Formerly the imports consisted of Madras piece goods, but within the last five years these, as well as Bengal piece goods, have given way to British piece goods, principally cheap, coloured handkerchiefs and book muslins, long cloths, and cotton cambrics. The other imports are some Madras and Bengal cottons, a small quantity of English woollens, iron-ware, sugar, dates, cocoa-nuts and tobacco. Formerly by far the largest export was teak timber, principally to Calcutta and Madras, the value then estimated at five lacks of rupees annually, independent of what was exported coast-ways from Basseen, and another large trading place called Lewatna, on the same river. The teak of Pegu has hitherto been all procured from the lower districts, because more accessible, which is probably the chief cause of its ac-

knowledged inferiority to the teak of Malabar. A considerable trade is said to exist between Amarapura and Yunan in China The principal export from Ava is cotton, which is transported up the Irawady in large boats as far as Bamoo, where it is bartered at the common jee or mart with the Chinese merchants, and conveyed by the latter into the celestial empire; as also amber, ivory, and gems, betel-nut, and edible nests brought from the Eastern islands. The returns from China are raw and wrought silks, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hardware. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have not any coin, silver in bullion and lead being the current monies of the country.

The Burmese empire is subdivided into provinces and districts of very unequal magnitude and importance, each governed by a viceroy or military chief, called Maywoon, aided in his functions by one or more subordinate officers, named Raywoon, according to the exigencies of his command. These form the lotoo or council, in which is vested the power of life and death, for, although appeal to Amarapura is permitted, the difficulty and expense render the privilege nugatory. These governors and military commandants have no salaries from the crown, but are allowed certain fees on law-suits, a per-centage on taxes, and may levy and extort contributions at their pleasure. When the king makes war, or the kingdom is invaded, the Maywoon provides the quota of men at which the province is assessed, and exacts extraordinary taxes for their equipment and support.

Besides these there is a subordinate class of functionaries named meuthogies, or civil chiefs, of whom there is one in every pergunnah, town, and village (like the patells of the Deccan) in the empire. This office is generally hereditary, and the possessors of it have great influence in the management of their respective quarters, as through them the taxes are collected and the viceroy's orders promulgated. They also hold courts for the trial of petty causes, and derive considerable emolument from the fees they are authorized to levy, and, owing to their utility at home, are usually exempted from military service. In 1825, as the British army advanced, these useful functionaries returned from the woods and jungles into which they had been driven with their people, and were reinstalled in their former departments, which they administered so effectually, that during the long halt of the British army at Prome, surrounded by an immense and agitated population, only one instance of capital punishment took place, and that a conviction of robbery accompanied with murder.

The Burmese administration of justice is at once rude, unskilful, violent, relentless, and rapacious. There is no species of pain or penalty, even death, from which exemption may not be purchased by a bribe, the highest bidder being sure to gain his cause in a civil court. In liquidation of fines, wives, daughters, and sons are sold and mortgaged. A minute register of every inhabitant above three years of age is kept, containing, from superstitious motives, the day of their nativity, their names and ages, as well as those of their wives and children, that all and each might be rendered responsible in their persons for their relatives. Persons, when they have been injured or aggrieved, are fined, even years afterwards, for not having complained, having thereby defrauded the government and its officers of the fees and profits that would have accrued from the investigation. On the 7th February 1817 seven persons were brought out for execution at Rangoon. The first was fired at four times without being hit, and was in consequence declared to be supernaturally protected, and pardoned; the second was shot dead, and the other five beheaded. It was subsequently ascertained that the supernatural culprit had paid the governor a large fine.

The names of the most remarkable towns are Ava, the ancient, and now again the modern capital; Amarapura, the late capital; Monchaboo, the birth-place of Alompra; Pegu, Rangoon, Basseen, Syriam, Negrais, Pagahm and Chagain, Prome and Tongho. The two last are reckoned the keys of the Burmese capital, yet might be suddenly captured by a handful of Europeans ascending the river in a steam-boat. Every town on the river, according to its size and means, is obliged to keep and man a gilt or common war-boat, of which the king can still muster above 200, carrying from forty to fifty men. As they live chiefly on free quarters, and are consequently in a state of hostility with the peasantry, they are violent, audacious, and prompt to execute any atrocity, however unjust and cruel, and are, in fact, the most loyal and efficient portion of the Burmese military establishment. The state boats belonging to the king and queen are gilt all over, the oars and paddles not excepted. According to Burmese notions, there are thirty-seven motions of the paddle.

Five months' uninterrupted tranquillity, while quartered at Prome, gave the British officers an opportunity of forming a more intimate acquaintance with the manners and customs of the Burmese than had hitherto been attained, all prior intercourse having been carried on under surveillance. Notwithstanding the Birman's cruel and sanguinary habits during war, he evinces in his private and domestic habits little of the ferocious arrogance that has rendered him the terror of surrounding nations. At home he is lazy and averse to work, compelling his wife to toil worse than a beast of burthen, while he passes his time in idleness, smoking, and chewing betel. His wants are few and simple; rice and a little fish, pickled and putrid, forms his daily repast, and water his drink, and he seems happy and contented, bearing all kinds of oppression with apathy and indifference, and kind to every body but his wife and daughter, both of whom he works like slaves, and prostitutes for money to strangers. Fortunately for these miserable beings—and females are miserable in all similar stages of society—the latter custom is not attended with the slightest degradation, the victims on their return being regarded rather as objects of envy than of pity, from the little stock of wealth they bring along with them.

The Indian nations east of the Ganges, following the maxims of the Chinese, have always been more cautious in their intercourse with foreign states than those of the west. Indeed the courts of Ava and Pekin resemble each other in many respects, and in none more than their vanity and pride, which often manifests itself in a most ludicrous manner. Like the sovereign of China, his majesty of Ava acknowledges no equal. Boa, or emperor, is a title which Minderajee had assumed; the sovereign of China is styled Oodee Boa, or emperor of Oodee or China. Although deficient in every thing that can render a state formidable, this sovereign and his functionaries are (or rather were) quite inflated with the idea of their own importance, and presented the spectacle of a court at once feeble and arrogant. In Ava all rank is official, emanating from, continued by, or annihilated by the will or caprice of the sovereign. The lowest Birman may aspire to the highest dignity; the most elevated may in one day be degraded to a level with the lowest of people, and esteem himself fortunate if he carries his head along with him. This want of a hereditary nobility, to give stability to the government and its institutions, has long preserved it in a state of anarchy, the victim of sudden and sanguinary revolutions.

The labouring classes of Ava and Pegu have been reckoned by a competent judge (Mr. Crawfurd) superior in point of physical strength and activity to any of the eastern Asiatics, the Chinese excepted; but he thought the mass of intelligence pos-

sessed by them greatly inferior to that of the Hindostanies, or any nation of western Asia, and even worse governed and less civilized than the Siamese and Cochin-Chinese. This may be attributed to the absence of a hereditary nobility, wealthy land proprietors, and of an elevated and intelligent hierarchy. Without these, knowledge cannot accumulate; nothing is permanently added to the prior fund, which is the natural check to misgovernment. According to a Burmese account, the provinces south of Prome contain 160 townships, and about 2,080 villages, with 175,000 houses, in each of which, according to the Burmese custom, from one to four families reside. Assuming two families, and five to a family, this estimate would give a population of 1,750,000, or about forty to the square mile. The area of the provinces south of Prome occupies about one-third of the whole empire, which, supposing it peopled in the same ratio, would give a total population of 3,500,000 persons (including 500,000 Carians), which is probably not very remote from the truth. It appears to have been the usual practice of the Burmese, and indeed of the ultra Gangetic nations generally, to transport the natives of their conquered provinces to another quarter, and re-people them with Burmese.

There is no doubt the population and resources of the Burmese empire had been greatly exaggerated by former travellers, and more especially by Colonel Symes, as may be inferred from the following statistical facts recently acquired. The three towns of Amarapura, Ava, and Sakaing, with the districts attached, contain an area of 283 square miles, composing by far the best cultivated and most populous portion of the empire. It is nearly exempted from taxation, being favoured through ancient and established usage, to the detriment of the rest of the country. According to the public registers, the above space contains 50,000 houses, and each house estimated at seven inhabitants, which would furnish an aggregate of 354,200 persons. Ava city certainly does not contain 30,000 inhabitants, and in population, wealth, industry, and trade, is greatly below Bankok, the capital of Siam. The other large towns, such as Rangoon, Prome, Monchaboo, &c., not above a dozen in number, do not contain more than 10,000 inhabitants each; indeed, in 1827, Rangoon was found only to contain between 8,000 and 9,000 by an actual census.

One-tenth of the produce is exacted as the authorized due of government, and one-tenth is the amount of the king's duty on all foreign goods imported. The revenue arising from customs on imports are mostly taken in kind; a small part converted into cash, and the rest distributed in lieu of salaries to the various departments of the state. Money, except on the most pressing exigencies, is never disbursed from the royal coffers. To one man the fees of an office are allowed, to another a station where certain imposts are collected; a third has land granted in proportion to the importance of his employment. On the other hand, every officer of government, from the highest to the lowest, according to his rank and station, makes an annual fixed present to the king.

The Burmese may be described as a nation of soldiers, every man in the kingdom being liable to be called on for his military services. In their usual mode of warfare, a Burmese rarely meets his enemy in the open field. Instructed and trained from his youth in the construction and defence of stockades, their wars prior to 1824 had been a series of conquests, all the adjacent nations having fallen before them. With reference to mere animal strength, a Hindostany sepoy is certainly not a match for a Burmese; but, alarmed and confounded by the steady advance of the European soldiers close up to their strongest works without firing a shot, distracted by the showers of Congreve rockets, shrapnell

shells, and bombs, and astonished by the smoking phenomenon of a steam boat, they fell before superior knowledge and energy. A Birman soldier has not even the consolation of seeing his general partaking his dangers, for after giving direction what to do, this cautious hero usually leaves the stockade. The investment of the Sheo Dagon pagoda at Rangoon, was the boldest undertaking of the Burmese during the late war. There they advanced within point-blank musket range, and burrowing like rabbits, bore a hot fire of shells, bombs, and shrapnells for six days. Their defence of Donabew also entitles them to much praise. Our late ambassador, however, denies their chiefs either courage, intelligence, or public spirit, and insists that the genius of the Burmese institutions, civil and military, are quite hostile to the generation of martial habits and feelings among the mass of the people. Indeed, he did not hesitate to consider them, when compared with the fighting tribes of Hindostan, a people eminently tame and unwarlike.

In their features the Burmese bear a much nearer resemblance to the Chinese than to the natives of Hindostan. They are not tall in stature, but are active and athletic, and have a very youthful appearance, from the custom of plucking the beard instead of using the razor. Both sexes colour their teeth, eye-lashes, and the edges of their eye-lids with black, and in their food, compared with the Hindostanies, are gross and uncleanly The culinary system of the Burmese and other Indo-Chinese nations, is nevertheless much more agreeable to a European palate than that of the natives of Hindostan. Some of their ragouts, however, are peculiar, one of which, sent with others by the king to the members of the late embassy by way of refreshment after a boat-race, was a dish of fried crickets. Although their religion forbids the slaughter of animals, yet they apply the interdiction only to those that are domesticated. All game is eagerly sought after, and in many places publicly sold. Reptiles, such as lizards, guanos, and snakes, constitute a part of the subsistence of the lower classes. To strangers they grant the most liberal indulgence, and if they chance to shoot at and kill a fat bullock, it is ascribed to accident. The Burmese burn their dead, and place implicit faith in talismans, auguries, and judicial astrology. The first are usually written on sheet gold or silver, and inserted under the skin of the person to be protected. All the Birman soldiers are tattooed, but the Siamese consider the practice as barbarous. Among this people the sitting posture is the most respectful, but strangers are apt to attribute to insolence, what in their view is a mark of deference. The British troops found the Burmese extravagantly fond of spirits, and they soon acquired the language of their conquerors sufficiently to ask for a glass of English water (gin) and brandy; but although their country abounds with cattle, they make no use whatever of their milk.

In this empire every thing belonging to the king has the word "shoe," or gold, prefixed to it; even his majesty's person is never mentioned but in conjunction with that precious metal. When a subject means to affirm that the king has heard anything, he says, "it has reached the golden ears;" he who has obtained admittance to the royal presence has been at the "golden feet;" and otr of roses is described as being grateful to the "golden nose" The Birman sovereign is sole proprietor of all the elephants within his dominions, and here male elephants are preferred to female, which is the reverse of what takes place in Hindostan. The henza, the symbol of the Burmese nation, as the eagle was of the Roman empire, is a species of wild fowl called the Brahminy goose. Men of high rank have their barges drawn by war boats, it being thought inconsistent with their dignity to sit in the same boat with common watermen. Not-

withstanding the well-formed arches still to be seen in many of the ancient temples, Burmese workmen can no longer turn them: which shews how easily an art once well known may be lost. Masonry in the latter ages has been much neglected, buildings of wood, thatch, and bamboos, having superseded the more solid structures of brick and mortar. No chief, however, will enter the house of an inferior, or even of an equal, for to do so implies a diminution of dignity The king never enters the house of his brother, although he is often seen walking arm in arm with him in the court before his dwelling.

The Pali language constitutes at the present day the sacred text of Ava, Pegu, and Siam; the Birman dialect has borrowed the Sanscrit alphabet, in which it is constantly written. But, notwithstanding this appearance of intimacy, the missionaries, in a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Burmese language, could scarcely discover three genuine Sanscrit words. Many syllables, however, according with those of the Chinese colloquial dialect are to be found, and the language adopts two of the four Chinese tones. The Sanscrit language is here found arrested in its progress eastward, and constrained to lend its alphabet to do little more than clothe and express another system, said, by those who have studied it most closely, to be of mere syllabic origin, and retaining tones completely foreign to the Sanscrit system. The character in common use throughout Ava and Pegu is a round Nagari, derived from the square Pali, or religious text, formed of circles and segments of circles variously disposed, written from left to right, and usually engraved on palmira leaves. Every place of note in the kingdom has two names, one in the vulgar tongue, and the other in the sacred Pali. The number of dialects spoken in the Birman empire is said to exceed eighteen.

The most remarkable antiquities are to be found at Pagahm, Chagaing, Sanku, and Anglewa. The ruins in best preservation, and largest in extent, are those of Pagahm, which extend twelve miles along the bank of the Irawady, and five inland. Many of the temples there are still entire, and exhibit a superior style, far beyond the utmost efforts of modern Burmese architects. In one of the old temples at Pagahm, Brahminical images of Vishnu, Siva, and Hunimaun were found, when visited by the embassy in 1827, besides many inscriptions in the Deva-nagari character. In one spot, where the temple of the Arracan image of Gaudma stands, the late king Minderaja Praw had collected 260 monumental inscriptions, some on white marble, but the greater number on sandstone, mostly however referring to the founding of some temple or monastery

The laws of the Burmese, like their religion, are Hindoo; indeed there is no separating their laws from their religion. Their code they name Derma Sath, or Sastra, which is one of Menu's commentaries. Their system of jurisprudence, like that of the Chinese, provides specifically for almost every species of crime that can be committed, and trial by ordeal and imprecation are permitted. They are not shackled by any prejudices of caste, restricted to hereditary occupations, or forbidden to associate with strangers, as are the Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion. A knowledge of letters is very generally diffused, and many can both read and write the vulgar tongue; but few understand the scientific or more sacred volumes. All kioums or monasteries are also seminaries for the education of youth, to which the surrounding inhabitants may send their children, where they are educated gratis by the Rahaans or monks, who neither buy, sell, or accept money. Their year is divided into twelve months, of twenty-nine and thirty days alternately, which they rectify by an intercalation every third year. They reckon the month from the beginning to the full moon, after which they recede by retrogressive

enumeration until the month is finished. The week is divided into seven days, as in Hindostan and Europe. The Christian year 1795 corresponds with the Birman year 1157, and with the Hejira of 1209. Througout Ava, and other states to the eastward, the word *lack* signifies only ten thousand.

Buddha (of whom the Burmese are sectaries, as the Hindoos are of Brahma) is admitted by Hindoos of all descriptions as the ninth Avatar, or descent of the deity in the character of preserver; but the religion of the Buddhists differs greatly from that of the Brahmins, the gods of the Brahmins being in a state of constant activity, pervading and animating all nature, while those of the Buddhists remain quiescent, and do not concern themselves about human affairs. The latter teach that from time to time men of surpassing piety and self-denial have appeared on earth, and from their singular worth have after death been transferred to a state of supreme bliss, or absence of pain. These saints, after reforming the world during their lifetime, and by their superior sanctity acquiring the power of performing miracles, are imagined after death to possess a command over the living, and it is they who are the direct objects of worship with the Buddhists. Buddha, during his incarnation, reformed the doctrines of the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle or depriving any thing of life. His birth-place is supposed to have been Gaya in Bahar. Gautama or Gautom, according to the Hindoos of India, and Gaudma among the ultra-Gangetic nations, is said to have been a saint and philosopher, and is believed by the Birmans to have flourished 2,300 years ago. He taught in the Indian schools the heterodox religion and philosophy of Buddha. The image that represents Buddha is called Gaudma, which is a commonly received appellation for Buddha himself. This image is a primary object of worship in all countries (Assam and Cassay excepted), situated between Bengal and China. The sectaries of Buddha contend with those of Brahma for antiquity, and are certainly in the aggregate, under various denominations, much more numerous. The Cingalese of Ceylon are Buddhists of the purest source, and the Burmese acknowledge to have received their religion from that island. Sir Wm. Jones determines the period when Buddha appeared on earth to have been 1,014 years before the birth of our Saviour.

The Burmese believe in the metempsychosis, and that having undergone a certain number of migrations, their souls will, at last, either be received into their mount Olympus, on the mountain Meru, or be sent to suffer torments in a place of divine punishment. Notwithstanding the Burmese are followers of Buddha, they greatly reverence the Brahmins, and acknowledge their superiority in science over their own priests. The king and chief officers have always in their houses some of these domestic sages, who supply them with astrological advice. But the natives of Ava do not inflict on themselves disgusting tortures, after the manner of the Brahminical Hindoos, although they deem it meritorious to mortify the flesh by the voluntary penances of abstemiousness and self-denial. The kioums or convents of the Rahaans differ in their structure from the common houses, and much resemble the architecture of the Chinese. They profess celibacy, abstain from every sensual indulgence, wear yellow, and never cook, holding it a degradation to perform any of the common offices of life likely to divert them from the contemplation of the divine essence; yet they are but little reverenced by their respective flocks, and have no political influence. In the various commotions of the empire, the Rahaans have never taken any active part, and have in consequence rarely been molested by the contending factions. Unshackled by the caste of the Brahminical Hindoos, or the bigotry of the Mussul-

man, so slight a hold has their present religious creed on the minds of the Burmese, that it has been asserted, and with strong probability, that the king of Ava could in one day, and by a simple order, change the religion of the whole nation, without creating a sensation or occasioning a murmur.

We have hitherto omitted to notice a very important personage, half sacred half prophane, who being the second dignitary in the kingdom, has a regular cabinet, composed of a woonghee or prime-minister; a woondock or secretary of state; a songhee, or inferior secretary; a nakeen, or transmitter of intelligence, besides other subordinate ministers and functionaries, some of whom manage the estates he possesses in the country. This individual is the white elephant, to whom presents of muslins, chintzes and silks are regularly made by all foreign ambassadors, the order of precedence in Ava being as follows: 1. The king; 2d. The white elephant; and 3. The queen. The residence of the white elephant is contiguous to the royal palace, with which it is connected by a long open gallery supported by numerous wooden pillars, at the further end of which a curtain of black velvet, embossed with gold, conceals the august animal from vulgar eyes, and before this curtain the intended offerings are displayed. His dwelling is a lofty hall covered with splendid gilding, and supported by sixty-four pillars, half of which are elegantly gilt. To two of these his fore-feet are fixed by silver chains, while his hind ones are secured by links of a baser metal. His bed consists of a thick mattress covered with blue cloth, over which another of a softer composition is spread, covered with crimson silk. His trappings are very magnificent, being of gold studded with large diamonds, pearls, sapphires, rubies, and other precious stones. His betel-box, spitting-pot, ankle rings, and the vessel out of which he feeds, are likewise of gold inlaid with precious stones, and his attendants and guard exceed one thousand persons. The white elephant, thus fed, dressed and attended, appears to be a diseased animal, whose colour has been affected by a species of leprosy. The one shown to Captain Canning in 1810, was of small size, of a sandy colour, and apparently unconscious of his own importance, although his votaries at a distance were humbly bowing their heads nearly to the ground. By the Birmans a white elephant is supposed to contain a human soul in the last stage of many millions of transmigrations, at the conclusion of which he is absorbed into the essence of the deity, and annihilated,—according to Birman faith, the highest state of beatitude.

The British embassy of 1826-27 had a more favourable opportunity of examining the white elephant than had fallen to the lot of the prior ones. It was the same elephant seen by Capt. Canning, of a cream rather than a white colour, and by no means so complete an albino as those belonging to the King of Siam. The veneration paid to this quadruped Mr. Crawfurd (the ambassador) thinks has been much exaggerated, it not being an object of worship, but only considered as an indispensable part of the regalia, which would be incomplete without it, and its absence would be considered a most inauspicious circumstance, prophetic of evil to the king and nation. Hence the anxiety evinced to obtain them, and the high reward offered for their capture.

Chronological tables of Burmese history, true or false, were procured by the late embassy, which go as far back as 543 years before Christ. The first monarchs are said to have come from India, from Magadha or Bahar, and to have fixed the seat of their government at Prome, where it remained for 336 years. In A.D. 107, it was transferred to Pagahm, where it continued for more than twelve centuries, hence the wonderful extent of the ruins of this metropolis. In 1322 the throne was transferred to Sakaing, and in 1364 to Ava,

where it remained for the 369 years, until the capture of that city by the Taleins or Peguers. Alompra made Monchaboo, his native town, the capital in 1752. His successors changed the capital almost every reign, to Sakaing, Ava, Amarapura, and then back again to Ava by his present Majesty in 1822. From the foundation of the monarchy to the present time there has been 128 kings, giving an average of seventeen years to each reign.

From the testimony of the Portuguese historians it appears that in the middle of the sixteenth century four powerful states occupied the regions that lie between the south-eastern provinces of British India, Yunan in China, and the Eastern sea. Their territories extended from Cassay and Assam on the north and west, and as far south as Junk Ceylon. These nations were known to Europeans by the names of Ava, Pegu, Arracan, and Siam. Ava, the name of the ancient capital of the Birmans, has usually been accepted as the name of the country at large, which is properly Mranma (pronounced Myamma), and named by the Chinese Zomien. The Portuguese authors say that the Burmese, though formerly subject to the kings of Pegu, became afterwards masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in Pegu about the middle of the 16th century. The Portuguese assisted the Burmese in their wars against the Talleins or Peguers, and continued to exercise an influence in the two countries, and still more in Arracan, so long as they maintained an ascendancy in the East over the other European nations. During the reign of Louis XIV. several splendid attempts were made to propagate the doctrines of the church of Rome, and advance the interest of the French nation in the kingdom of Siam; but little is related of Ava or Pegu.

The supremacy of the Birmans over the Peguers continued throughout the seventeenth century, and during the first forty years of the eighteenth century, about which period the Peguers in the provinces of Dalla, Martaban, Tongho and Prome revolted; and a civil war ensued, prosecuted on both sides with the most savage ferocity. About the years 1750 and 1751, the Peguers, by the aid of fire-arms procured from the European vessels trading to their ports, and with the assistance of some renegade Dutch and native Portuguese, gained several victories over the Birmans. In 1752 they invested Ava, the capital, which surrendered at discretion. Dwipadi, the last of a long line of Birman kings, was made prisoner with all his family except two sons, who escaped to the Siamese. Bonna Della, or Beinga Della, the Pegu sovereign, when he had completed the conquest of Ava, returned to his own country.

A man now arose to rescue his country from this state of degradation Alompra or Alomendra Praw (the founder of the present dynasty), a man of low extraction, then known by the name of the Huntsmar, had been continued by the conqueror in the chiefship of Monchaboo, at that time an inconsiderable village. His troops at first consisted of only 100 picked men, with which he defeated the Peguers in several small engagements, and his forces increasing, he suddenly advanced and obtained possession of Ava about the autumn of 1753 From this date, after a series of hard-fought actions, he first expelled the enemy from the northern provinces, then pursued them into their own territories, where, after a protracted siege, or rather blockade, he took the city of Pegu, which he abandoned to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. He next invaded Siam, and would have in all probability effected the conquest of that empire if he had not been prevented by a mortal disease, which arrested his career in 1760, in the fiftieth year of his age, after a short and prosperous, but bloody reign, of only eight years. In these wars the French favoured the Peguers, while the English chose the conquering side.

Alompra was succeeded by his eldest son, Namdojee Praw, who died in 1764, when his brother Shembuan assumed the reins of government, and being of a martial disposition, attacked the Siamese, and took their capital, Yuthia, in 1766, but was unable to retain permanent hold of so distant a country. In A.D. 1767, or 1131 of the Birman era, the Chinese sent an army of 50,000 men from the western frontier of Yunan, which advanced into the Ava dominions as far as the village of Chiboo, where they were hemmed in by the Burmese. The Tartar cavalry, on whose vigour and activity the Chinese army depended for supplies, could no longer venture out either to procure provisions or to protect convoys. Under these circumstances, their army was attacked and wholly destroyed, except about 2,500, who were sent in fetters to the capital, where they were settled, and encouraged to marry Burmese females. This custom is singular among the civilized countries of the east, and peculiarly remarkable in a people who derive their tenets from a Hindoo source. It is well known that in China even the public prostitutes are strictly prohibited from all intercourse with any other than a Chinese; nor is there any foreign woman permitted to enter their territories, or to visit the ports of this jealous nation. Hindoo women of good caste are equally inaccessible, and admission into a respectable tribe is not attainable by money.

The remaining years of Shembuan were occupied in subduing the revolts of the Peguers, harassing the Siamese, and effecting the conquest of Cassay, and Munipoor its capital, which last event took place in A.D. 1774. He died two years afterwards, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, aged eighteen, who proving a debauched blood-thirsty monster, was dethroned and put to death in 1782, by his uncle Minderajee Praw, the fourth son of Alompra, the founder of the dynasty. This sovereign in the succeeding year sent a fleet of boats against Arracan, which being in a state of anarchy, by the assistance of internal traitors, was conquered after a slight resistance, and was soon followed by the surrender of Cheduba, Ramree, Sandowy, and the Broken isles. The Burmese arms were then turned against the Siamese, from whom, between 1784 and 1793, they conquered the provinces of Tavoy, Tenasserim, Junk Ceylon, and the Mergui isles.

In 1795, a Burmese army of 5,000 men pursued three distinguished robbers into the British district of Chittagong, where their progress was opposed by a strong detachment from Calcutta, and after much negociation retreated within their own limits; the then refugees were subsequently given up, and two out of the three executed with tortures. This acquiescence on the part of the British government had a prejudicial effect on the subsequent conduct of the Burmese, for it was impossible to convince this most self-important people that they were given up from any other motive than that of fear; which occasioned so frequent a repetition of violence and insolence, as to render war at last inevitable. Had the invasion of Chittagong been vigorously repulsed in 1795, and a direct refusal given to any proposal regarding the insurgents after so hostile a proceeding had been adopted, the recent war of 1824 might in all probability have been avoided.

From the year 1795 until 1809, when Capt. Canning's mission took place, the condition of this empire, both moral and political, had been progressively deteriorating, and the intellects of its sovereign gradually verging to insanity. The heir-apparent, or Engy Tekien, had died the previous year, and also his chief minister, a very respectable old man, both of whom had frequently prevented or mitigated the king's sanguinary orders. Deprived of these checks, his rage became ungovernable, and he often pursued with his sword and spear any person whose countenance he disliked. Insurrec-

tions and rebellions broke out over the country, while its sovereign was carrying on preposterous intrigues to excite the chiefs and people of Hindostan against the British government. Most of these were detected by the Bengal functionaries, but they were so utterly absurd and irrational that no notice was taken of them. In 1814, this barbarous and ignorant court renewed the wild and extravagant scheme of forming a confederation of all the native princes of India to effect the expulsion of the British, and, connected with the plan circulated a rumour that the king of Ava meant to make a pilgrimage to Gaya and Benares, at the head of 40,000 men. An emissary also, disguised as a merchant, was despatched by the route of Dacca, on a clandestine mission to the Seik country and Upper Hindostan; while the Shahbunder of Arracan visited Trincomalee ard Madras, to collect information regarding the politics of Southern India. This Burmese intrigue was from the beginning fully known to the British government, but not the slightest importance was attached to it. About A.D. 1817 and the following years, this turbulent nation directed their arms towards the north, where they made a conquest of the extensive jungly countries of Assam, and the adjacent petty states south of the Brahmaputra, where they established and retained a permanent military force, and threatened the north-eastern quarter of the Bengal province, hitherto reputed unassailable.

Minderajee Praw died in 1819, and was succeeded by his grandon, Madu Chew, and son of the Engy Tekien, or heir apparent, favourably mentioned by Col. Symes in 1795. His ascension was attended with the customary bloodshed and massacres; but these disturbances appear to have been of only transitory duration, for when Ava was invaded by the British in 1824, he was found firmly seated on the throne, and busily engaged in extending his dominions. The unprovoked aggressions of his troops on the south-eastern frontier of Bengal, and the contemptuous silence of his court to every remonstrance on the subject, led to a rupture with the British, which commenced in May 1824, and lasted until the 24th of February 1826; when a treaty of peace was concluded by Sir Archibald Campbell at Yandaboo. By the conditions of this treaty the King of Ava renounced all claims on Assam, Cachar, Gentiah, and Munipoor; ceded the provinces of Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Martaban, south of the Saluen river; engaged to pay one crore of rupees as an indemnity, and to receive a resident British ambassador in his capital. This war was distinguished from every other by its duration, by its great privations, by difficulties of every kind, arising from the climate and nature of the country, by its unceasing and harassing duties, and by its frequent conflicts with the enemy. All these a British army, never exceeding 5,000 fighting men, surmounted, and dictated peace almost at the gates of the enemy's capital.

Impartiality, however, compels us to give the Burmese history of this war, as it stands recorded in the national chronicle of the Burmese empire by the court historiographer, to the following purport. "In the years 1186 and 1187 (Birman era), the kula pyu, or white strangers of the west, fastened a quarrel upon the lord of the golden palace. They landed at Rangoon, took that place and Prome, and were permitted to advance as far as Yandaboo; for the king from motives of piety and regard to life made no preparation whatever to oppose them. The strangers had spent vast sums of money in their enterprize, so that by the time they reached Yandaboo their resources were exhausted, and they were in great distress. They then petitioned the king, who in his clemency and generosity sent them large sums of money to pay their expenses back, and ordered them out of the country."

His present Majesty is now (1827) forty-four years of age, and came to

the throne in 1819. He is of short stature but active form, partial to riding on horseback and on elephants, and more especially on men's shoulders. In this last species of locomotion no saddle is made use of, and for a bridle a strap of muslin is put into the mouth of the biped. His natural disposition is said to be kind and benevolent, and he is easily led and ruled by favourites. He is well acquainted with the literature of his country, and reads, or rather hears a great deal read to him. The Queen is about two years older than his Majesty; has a good person and dignified address, but never was handsome. She was the daughter of a chief gaoler, and first taken into the seraglio as a concubine (while the king was heir apparent), where she soon acquired a powerful influence over him, which every year has appeared to increase, and is now so unbounded that the Burmese ascribe it to the power of magic, and call her a sorceress She goes with all processions, and in 1823 the Chinese ambassadors were received by the King and Queen on the throne, to the great surprise of that ceremonious nation, who seclude the sex on all public occasions. She is not the mother of the existing heir apparent, and is generally unpopular; but by her devotion to her religion, and liberality to pagodas and monasteries, she acquired the good opinion of the priesthood. The proper title of the heir apparent is Ing-she-Men (Engy Tekien), which literally means "Lord of the East-house," but the origin of the phrase is unknown. The present prince is also named Rungian, after his government; but the most common name by which he is known is Sakya-men, which the Burmese translate "Lord of the World."—(*Crawfurd, Symes, Snodgrass, Trant, Canning, Cox, Leyden, F. Buchanan, Lieut. Low, &c.*)

AVA (*properly Angwa*) — The ancient, and in recent times again the modern, capital of the Burmese empire, six miles south of Amarapura; lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 96° E. When visited by the British officers in 1826 it appeared well-built, but not containing its usual amount of population. It is surrounded by a brick wall, but could have been captured in a few hours. Prior to the rupture with the British, Amarapura had been the capital; but having been almost destroyed by fire, and some evil omens having occurred, the king resolved on rebuilding and repeopling the ancient metropolis, events easily accomplished in Ava. By February 1824, he had finished the present beautiful (so it is called) palace, of which he took possession with much pomp on the fifth of next March, and to this removal the superstitious Birmans attributed their subsequent disasters. The audience house or room in the above palace, although little reconcileable to European notions of architecture and decoration, is said to be singularly splendid and brilliant, and there is reason to doubt whether an equally imposing hall exists in any other country. It has the same proportions with that described by Col. Symes, but is larger, being in the proportion of 120 by 90 feet. In 1827 the population of this city was only estimated at 30,000 persons, and in respect to wealth, industry, trade, and number of inhabitants, greatly inferior to Bankok, the capital of Siam. Its Sanscrit name is Ratnapura, or the city of gems.—(*Crawfurd, Snodgrass, Symes, &c.*)

AVENASHY.—A large village in the province of Coimbatoor, about thirty-six miles travelling distance N. by W. from Daraporum. At this place there is a bridge constructed of immense flags of stone, and the village contains an ancient and very curious Hindoo temple, covered with sculptures.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

AZIMABAD.—A small town in the province of Delhi, seven miles N. by W. from Kurnal, lat. 30° 47′ N., lon. 76° 54′ E.

AZIMGHUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles

N.E. from Juanpoor; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 83° 10′ E. A considerable quantity of cotton goods are manufactured and exported from this place and its vicinity. It was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in 1801.

Azimnagur.—A large district in the Bejapoor province, situated to the south of the river Krishna, about the sixteenth degree of north latitude. It is watered by the Gutpurba and Malpurba rivers, but much of the surface still remains in a state of nature. The chief towns are Gokauk, Belgaum, and Shahpoor.

Azim Sauheb ka Serai.—A serai in the province of Malwa, situated in a little cultivated valley among the wilds of the Vindhyan mountains, between the passes called the Jaumun and Koteedee ghauts, about eight miles S. by W. from the ruins of Mandow. This is one of the handsomest and most spacious serais in Hindostan, the outer wall being a massy work of grey granite with a superstructure of brick, and fortified with bastions and loop holes, while the galleries looking into the open square within, are built of the red Mandow marble, and divided into 176 cells or compartments, besides two suites of larger chambers in the centre of the east and west ranges. There is a small Bheel village on the skirt of the valley, and others are seen scattered about among the surrounding hills, consisting generally of four or five little stone hovels. In former times this serai and the ruins of Mandow were the favourite haunts of the Bheel robbers who then infested the neighbouring country. In 1820, it was in contemplation to transfer the head-quarters of the Bheel corps from Nalchah hither, as a better position for watching and suppressing the depredations of such of their mountaineer brethren as still remained unreclaimed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Azmerigunge (*Ajamida Ganj*).—A town in the province of Bengal, seventy-five miles N.E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 33′ N., lon. 91° 5′ E. This is a place of considerable inland traffic, with a boat-building establishment for the construction of native craft.

B

Baad.—A small town in the province of Agra, six miles south from the city of Agra, the road to which is through a fertile country interspersed with clumps of mango trees. Lat. 27° 5′ N., lon. 77° 50′ E.

Baber.—A small island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by several others, scattered between the 130th and 131st degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at eighteen miles, by six the average breadth.

Babhier.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the coolies of which had long been the terror of the neighbourhood, but were at last so effectually put down by the British government, that in 1820 their troops consisted of only two horse and 112 foot, whereas in 1809 they amounted to 125 horse and 1,500 foot.

Baberee.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, having little Babere opposite. In 1820 this place belonged to the Nabob of Bhopaul.

Babra.—A town and petty state in the province of Malwa, district of Rath. In 1820 this was the residence of a Rajpoot chief, a great proportion of whose subjects were Bheels.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Babreeawar.—A district in the Gujerat province, comprehending that portion of the Gujerat peninsula terminated by the island of Diu. To the north it is bounded by Kattywar; on the south by the sea; to the west it has Soreth; and on the east the sea and the gulf of Cambay. This is a very barren tract, containing few towns, and producing barely sufficient food for its own consumption.

Until lately this portion of the peninsula was almost unknown, partly owing to physical difficulties, and partly to the well-earned reputation of its inhabitants for barbarity.

The sea-port of Jafferabad is properly in Babreeawar, and the Siddees, who have greatly multiplied in the neighbourhood, have formed several villages, where they live by their industry, and collect for sale a great deal of excellent honey, while the Babreeawar mountains afford a never-failing pasture, where during the drought of 1812-13 almost the whole cattle of the peninsula were assembled. The country is named after the Babreea tribe of Coolies, which formerly possessed great part of Cattywar and Goelwar, whence they were expelled by the Catties.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Babuan.—A small island about twenty-five miles in circumference, the most northerly of the Philippines. Lat. 19° 43′ N., lon. 122° E.

Babuyanes Isles.—A number of islands thus named, lying off the northern coast of Luzon, the principal Philippine, between the 19th and 20th degrees of north latitude. The largest are named Babuan, Calayan, Dalupiri, Camiguen, and Fuga, and are from twenty to thirty miles each in circumference; but besides these there are many rocky isles and islets. Although so far north, the Babuyanes, when visited by Capt. Forrest, were much infested by piratical prows from Magindanao.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Babye.—A middle-sized town and fort in the province of Gundwana, thirteen miles S.E. of the confluence of the Towah and Nerbudda, fifteen and a half miles E.S.E. from Hussenabad; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunna, and belonged to the Raja of Nagpoor.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Backar (*Bhakar*).—A fortress in the province of Mooltan, situated on an island of the Indus, dependent on the district of Shekarpoor, and at present subject to the Afghans; lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 68° 37′ E. By Abul Fazel this place and the surrounding district are favourably described; but since his time this portion of Hindostan has apparently been undergoing a gradual deterioration, owing to misgovernment, and the encroachment of the desert. Backar is also mentioned by Sidi Ali Ben Hossein in the journal of his travels overland from Gujerat to Constantinople, A.D. 1554.—(*Abul Fazel, Sidi Ali, &c.*)

Backergunge (*Bakarganj*).—A district in the province of Bengal, formed about the year 1800, from the southern quarter of the too extensive district of Dacca Jelalpoor. In 1801 the courts of justice and revenue were removed from the town of Backergunge to Burrishol, which was made the capital. A considerable portion of this division, formerly named Boklah or Ismaelpoor, extends along the western bank of the Puddah (Padma) or great Ganges, nearly to its mouth at the island of Rabnabad, which forms the south-eastern angle of the Bengal delta. About A.D. 1584 this tract was overwhelmed and laid waste by an inundation, succeeded by Mugh invasions aided by the Portuguese of Chittagong, from the combined effects of which it has not recovered to the present day, and the ruins of three old mud forts, built for defence against these incursions, still remain. In 1801, the district was supposed to comprehend 4,564 square miles.

The lands of Backergunge, notwithstanding their low surface and proximity to the sea, are very productive, being annually, during the periodical rains, overflowed by the fresh water of, and fertilized by the slimy mould deposited by the Ganges. In consequence of this redundant moisture and a hot sun, it produces annually two abundant crops of rice, and is the granary of Calcutta, both for exportation and consumption. From the contiguity of this division to the Sunderbunds (of which it is almost an integral portion), the nu-

merous rivers that intersect it in every direction, and the quantity of jungle still covering its surface, it not only abounds with alligators and tigers of the most enormous size, but has been from the remotest periods greatly infested by Dacoits, or river pirates. A strong establishment of boats and sepoys has always been maintained; but their efforts, and those of the magistrates, were for above thirty years wholly unavailing to suppress, or even diminish the number of robberies, every remedy attempted appearing to aggravate the calamity. A long perseverance, however, at last succeeded, for in 1814 the judges of circuit reported that the Backergunge district was in a state of security from violent depredation, and that offences of other sorts did not prevail to any great extent. Here, as in other parts of Bengal, the obstacles to the suppression of crime do not originate from any open resistance to the magisterial authority, but from the incredible difficulty of distinguishing the innocent from the guilty.

In 1801, the total population was estimated at 926,723 inhabitants, in the proportion of five Hindoos to three Mahomedans, many of whom reside in boats the whole year. In the southern quarter there still exist several Portuguese colonies, of probably two centuries duration, affording a melancholy example to what extreme degree it is possible for Europeans to degenerate. In June 1822 a great inundation occurred, which submerged an extensive tract of country, sweeping away houses and cattle, and drowning above 10,000 of the inhabitants, and even where no lives were lost much valuable property was destroyed.—(*Public MS. Documents, J. Grant, Crisp, &c.*)

BACKERGUNGE.—A town in the province of Bengal, about 120 miles east of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 89° 90′ E. It was the head-quarters of the station until 1801, when the courts of justice and revenue were removed to Burrishol.

BADAUMY.—A strong hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor fifty-five miles N.E. from Darw. .ich in 1820 contained 476 houses and 2,267 inhabitants. Lat. 15° 55′ N., lon. 75° 49′ E. It was taken by storm in 1818, by a detachment under Sir Thomas Munro, although it was always reckoned one of the strongest hill fortresses in India, having formerly made a successful resistance against the whole Maharatta army under Nana Furnavese. It consists of fortified hills, with a walled town at the bottom, containing an inner fort.

The hills in the neighbourhood of Badaumy are broken into various shapes, huge masses of many thousand tons being partly detached, or detached and rolled over. Little temples have been built on their summits, and among the chasms, and on two of the greater masses, partially separated, stand the two castles of Badaumy. For further particulars respecting the Badaumy pergunnah, see Bagulcot.—(*Marshall, Blacker, &c.*)

BADARWAL.—A town in the Kohistan or high-lands of Lahore, forty miles S.S.E. from the city of Cashmere, lat. 33° 36′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E.

BADRACHELLUM (*Bhadrachalam, the sacred mountain*).—A town in Gundwana, situated on the east side of the Godavery, seventy-eight miles N. by W. from Rajamundry; lat. 17° 57′ N., lon. 81° 17′ E. At this station the zemindar of Poloonshah collects taxes on all goods passing through his country. The merchandize is generally cotton, transported from the interior to the northern Circars, salt and cocoa-nuts being brought from the sea-coast in exchange. At Badrachellum there is a pagoda of high repute, sacred to Seeta, 200 yards to the south of which is the town, consisting of about 100 huts, the whole surrounded with jungle. In the middle of the Godavery, in this vicinity, the natives assert that a hot spring rises, and diamonds are found in the bed of the river.—(*J. B. Blunt, Heyne, &c.*)

Badrycasram *(Vadaricasrama)*. See **Sources of the Ganges.**

Badrinath.—See **Bhadrinath.**

Badulla.—A town in the island of Ceylon, thirty-eight miles S E. from Candy, lat. 6° 56′, lon. 81° 15′ E. This is the principal station of the Ouva district, and is situated on a gently rising ground about 2,100 feet above the level of the sea, within an extensive valley bounded by lofty mountains, and watered by a sluggish stream which nearly surrounds it. As a town it is insignificant, and the fortifications consist merely of a small stone fort, with cantonments for the troops. The adjacent land is fertile, and though so remote from the sea the cocoa-nut tree appears to flourish. The great mountain Numina Cooly Candy, next in elevation to Adam's Peak, rises in massive grandeur above the Badulla valley, its table summit sloping gently down on every side On the 21st of March 1819, 1,000 feet from the apex, the thermometer stood at 53° Fahrenheit, before sunrise —(*Davy, &c.*)

Bagalaen *(or Bugulen)*—A district in the south of Java, nearly central from east to west, but respecting which scarcely any thing is known.

Bagaroo.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eighteen miles S W from the city of Jeypoor; lat 26° 49′ N, lon. 75° 22′ E.

Bagesur.—A village in northern Hindostan, sixteen miles N E. from Almora; lat. 29° 49′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E.

Baghul.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutlege and Jumna rivers. It was conquered by the Gorkhas in 1804, who extorted from it in all shapes a revenue equal to 23,247 rupees. At present it is under the protection of the British Government Baheree, a fort erected by the Gorkhas, near Urki, is the Rana of Baghul's present residence.—(*Lieut. Ross, &c.*)

Baghput *(Bhagapati)*.—A town in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles north from the city of Delhi · lat 28° 56′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E.

Baglana *(Bhagelana)*.—A large district in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude. This is a remarkably hilly province, but contains many fertile plains and vallies interspersed, and is studded with fortresses erected on the peaks of the mountains. Baglana is one of the original Maharatta countries where that tribe first emerged into notice, and it is still mostly occupied by petty chiefs of that nation. On account of its great natural strength, and the resistance it was capable of opposing, it does not appear that it was ever thoroughly subdued, either by the Moguls or the Deccany sovereigns. It was invaded by the Mahomedans in A D. 1296, under Sultan Allah ud Deen, but it was an acquisition they were never able permanently to retain. It continued under a nominal subordination to the Delhi throne until the appearance of Sevajee, the first Maharatta leader, when it was one of the earliest that revolted, and remained, with various vicissitudes, under a Maharatta sovereignty until the fall of the Peshwa in 1818.—(*Ferishta, Rennell, &c.*)

Baclel—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 500 houses; lat 22° 39′ N, lon. 76° 28′ E., fifty-four miles S.E. from Oojein. This place is situated near the Cali Sinde, and has a small well-built ghurry or native fortification.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bagra.—A fort in the province of Lahore, situated on a peak 6,168 feet high, in the district of Mundi; lat 31° 29′ N, lon. 78° 13′ E.

Bagrode.—A town and small fort in the province of Malwa, situated on the road from Bhilsa to Ratghur, and eleven miles from the latter. In 1820 this place belonged to Sindia, and contained about 600 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bagulcot (*including Badaumy*).—A subdivision of the British district of Darwar, in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north-east by that part of the river Krishna immediately above the Kapen Sungum, or junction of the river Malpurba. The extreme length of this tract is about fifty-four miles, and extreme breadth forty-four; but from the irregularity of its shape, the square contents do not exceed 1,230 miles. It is badly watered, the annual rains not being sufficient to furnish perennial streams, or to fill the tanks with more than a few months' supply; most of the villages are consequently on the banks of the larger rivers.

Before the rains the climate is intensely hot, and the rainy season has not the violent character of a coast monsoon. The whole quantity of rain that fell at Badaumy in the months of July, August and September 1820, amounted to only eighteen inches, and the whole annual rain did not exceed twenty-six inches, an astonishingly moderate quantity for an intertropical climate, and often greatly surpassed in one month of the south-west monsoon near the coast, or first range of hills. From the want of running streams and large wells, the garden economy of the district is necessarily limited.

The pergunnahs of Bagulcot and Badaumy are decidedly in the ancient Carnataca or Canara proper, and the language is universally Canarese. Prior to 1810 they had been long administered by the Rastia family, and in 1820 contained 319 inhabited townships, including the towns of Bagulcot, Badaumy, Keroor, Perwatee, and Seroor. The number of houses as stated in the population returns was 21,654; of inhabitants 97,884, or about four and a half to a house, the males usually exceeding the females. The most numerous tribe is the Jungum or Lingawut, who comprise one-third of the whole; the Dhungur or shepherd caste one-fifth; Mahomedans one-sixth; the remainder Beruds, Mooslegeers, and other classes.

These pergunnahs were among the territories of the Shahnour Nabob, which in 1755 came into the possession of the Maharattas when the elder Balajee Row was Peshwa; but the country was then in a very disorderly state, and the Nabob's power little more than nominal. During the season of misrule the population acquired habits of violence and rapine, and it is quite incredible how sudden and universal a change took place on their transfer to the British government in 1818. Dr. Marshall, writing on the spot in 1820, declares that in no country had he ever met with such a total absence of crime; indeed, he thought it too miraculous to last.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

Bagulcot.—A town in the British district of Darwar, province of Bejapoor, which in 1820 contained 1,376 houses and 7,528 inhabitants. It is the cusba or chief town of a pergunnah, and the residence of the principal merchants and bankers. A mint had been established here prior to the Maharatta conquest in 1755, which continued at work in 1820. It is entirely a private concern, the undertaker purchasing all the bullion, and issuing the coin on his own account. He pays a small tax to government, and is responsible that his coinage contains no more than the authorized proportion of alloy.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

Bagur.—This ranks as a minor province in the old division of Hindostan, where it still retains its name and dimensions, but in modern geography is attached to the provinces of Malwa and Gujerat. It comprehends the hilly tract of country which formerly separated these soubahs; is bounded on the north by Mewar, and on the south by a narrow strip of Malwa, which extends from Petlawud to Dohud, and divides Bagur from Rath. The aspect is extremely uncouth, consisting almost entirely of ranges of hills running in a northerly and southerly direction, mostly covered with thick low jungle forests of teak, black-wood, &c., especially

near the western and southern boundaries. On every side there is a descent from the old limits of Malwa to Bagur, and from thence, but more imperceptible, into Gujerat, the respective limits being distinctly marked by ridges of woody hills of moderate elevation. The climate for a considerable portion of the year is reckoned unhealthy, and, owing to a deficient supply of water, is comparatively unproductive. The mountain streams soon run themselves dry, and the digging of wells and tanks is attended with great labour and expense; reservoirs, however, are sometimes constructed by throwing an embankment across the stream of a narrow valley.

Excepting the towns of Doongurpoor, Banswarra, and Sangwara, this division contains no inhabited places of any importance; but vestiges of antiquity lie scattered over the surface, tending to prove, in particular localities, a prior condition of greater prosperity. At present the great mass of the population consists of Bheels and Meenas (between whom no intelligible distinction has yet been drawn) under various petty thakoors or chiefs, generally pretending to the dignity of Rajpoots.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bahadra.—A town and petty state in the province of Delhi. In 1819 the chief of this principality requested that the British government would take his small territory under its protection, as it was then claimed by the Rajas of Patiallah and Bicanere.—(*Public Documents, &c.*)

Bahadurpoor.—A town in the Gujerat province, sixty-two miles E. by S. from Cambay, lat. 22° 11′ N., long. 73° 46′ E.

Bahadurpoor.—A town with a fortified ghurry, in the province of Gujerat, seven miles from Dubboi; lat. 22° 10′ N., long. 73° 45′ E.

Bahadurpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, district of Chendaree, lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia.

BAHAR.

(*Vihar, a monastery of Buddhists.*)

This large province is principally situated between the twenty-second and twenty-seventh degree of north latitude. Until the conquests of 1815, it was separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a range of hills, and a low woody country; on the south it has the ancient and barbarous Hindoo province of Gundwana; to the east it is bounded by the province of Bengal, and on the west by Allahabad, Oude, and Gundwana. The river Caramnassa was the old line of separation between the Bahar and Benares territories. The space comprehended within these limits is one of the most fertile, highly cultivated, and populous of Hindostan, in proportion to its extent of plain arable ground, which may be computed at 26,000 square miles, divided naturally into two equal portions, north and south of the Ganges, which runs here an easterly course for 200 miles.

One of these divisions extends northerly to the forests of Nepaul and Morung; is separated from Goruckpoor in Oude on the west by the Gunduck, and a crooked line between that river and the Goggrah. This northern division is bounded on the east by Purneah in Bengal, the whole area being one uninterrupted flat, which was divided by the Emperor Acber in four districts, viz. Tirhoot, Hajypoor, Sarun, with Chumparun or Bettiah.

The central division of Bahar extends south of the Ganges sixty miles, to the range of hills called in Sanscrit Vindya-Chil, which separates the lower plains from the territory above the Ghauts. It is divided on the west from Chunar in Allahabad by the river Caramnassa, and from Bengal on the east by a branch of the southern hills, extending to the pass of Telliaghurry, on the confines of Rajamahal. The district named Bahar, situated in the midst of this cen-

tral tract, occupies about one-half of the whole level area, the plains of Monghir one-sixth more, the rest being mountainous. Rhotas, the most south-westerly division, lies chiefly between the rivers Sone and Caramnassa, the remaining district extending along the south side of the Ganges. This central division, on account of the superiority of its soil and climate, yields nearly two-thirds of the total annual produce of opium. Exclusive of these two divisions there is a straggling hilly country, which yields but little.

Still further south there is a third and elevated region, comprehending 18,000 square miles, though comparatively of inconsiderable value. This highland includes the modern subdivisions of Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor; bounded on the west by the province of Allahabad, on the south by Gundwana and Orissa, and on the east by Bengal. This last division is geographically termed the three bellads or cantons, and is also, by Mahomedan writers, sometimes described under the appellation of Kokerah, but more commonly Nagpoor, from the diamond mines, real or imaginary, it is supposed to contain. The following were the superficial contents of this province in 1784, viz.

The lands of eight districts, containing	26,287
The lands belonging to Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor	18,553
Portion of hilly country in Monghir, Rhotas, &c....	7,133
	51,973

The province of Bahar enjoys great natural advantages: a temperate climate, high and fertile soil, well-watered, productive of the drier grains, and all the luxuries required for the more active inhabitants of the north. Its geographical position also is central, having easy communications internally, and serving as a thoroughfare for the commerce of Bengal with the upper provinces of Hindostan. These advantages brought Bahar into a high state of prosperity before the Patan conquest, and which has continued without interruption amidst all its political vicissitudes. In Bahar Proper and the contiguous districts, a parching wind from the west prevails during a large portion of the hot season, blowing with considerable strength during the day, but commonly succeeded at night by a cool breeze from an opposite direction; sometimes it ceases for days or weeks, giving way to easterly gales. Beyond the limits of the Bahar district to the west, refreshing breezes, and cooling showers of hail and rain, are still more rare. During the cold season a blighting frost is sometimes experienced in Bahar and Benares, at which period, among the hills, the wind is singularly bracing to European constitutions, the thermometer at sun-rise ranging from 35° to 40°, Fahrenheit, and frequently in the afternoon of the same day rising to 70°.

Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce have always flourished in this province. Opium may be considered as its peculiar produce, and the staple commodity of the country. Saltpetre is principally manufactured in the divisions of Hajypoor and Sarun. Cotton cloths for exportation are fabricated every where; in addition to which are the ordinary productions of grain, sugar, indigo, oil, betel-leaf, and a variety of flower essences, especially rose-water and otr of roses. Like the greater part of Upper Hindostan, Bahar was formerly supplied with salt from the Sambher lake in Rajpootana; but its inhabitants now consume the Bengal salt, with a portion of that imported from the coast of Coromandel.

The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of Bahar; and it is a practical remark, that the production of nitre is greatest during the prevalence of the hot winds, which are perhaps essential to its formation. These parching winds from the west did not formerly extend beyond the eastern

limits of Bahar; but by the change of seasons, which have been remarked within these forty years, the influence of the hot winds is now felt in Bengal, where, on that account, the manufacture of saltpetre might now be attempted with success. One hundred parts of nitre earth from the Tirhoot district, when analyzed by Dr. John Davy, was found to contain

Nitrate of potash	8 3
Nitrate of lime	3 7
Sulphate of lime	0 8
Common salt	0 2
Carbonate of lime	35 0
Earthy matter, insoluble in water and nitric acid ...	40 0
Water, with a trace of vegetable matter	12 0
	100 0

Artificial nitre beds consist of the refuse of vegetable and animal matter undergoing putrefaction, mixed with calcareous and other earths. The air furnishes the oxygen and nitrogen (or azote), which are the component ingredients of nitric acid; but how lime contributes to their union is not known, and the appearance of potash is equally extraordinary.

The opium produced in the provinces of Bahar and Benares is monopolized by government, to be sold in Calcutta by public auction, and, for various reasons, this monopoly seems less exceptionable than many others. At present, the opium agent at Patna makes his purchases in the districts of Bahar, Ramghur, Shahabad, Sarun, and Tirhoot; but Dr. F. Buchanan is of opinion, that, with some pains, the whole quantity might be procured from the Bahar district alone, which would tend greatly to the suppression of the contraband trade in this narcotic. In the evening, each capsule of the poppy, as it attains the proper stage of maturity, has a slight incision made in its whole length, and next morning what opium has exuded is collected. After two or three days another incision is made, at some distance from the first, and according to the size of the capsule, it admits of being cut from three to five times; but the crop lasts six weeks, as the capsules advance at different periods. The extraction of the opium does no material injury to the seed, which is chiefly reserved for future sowing; but a little is also used in native sweetmeats. Formerly the opium sent to Calcutta was much adulterated by the intermixture of foreign ingredients, and it was difficult to discover the nature of the adulteration; it has, however, been supposed, that it is usually vitiated with an extract from the leaves and stalks of the poppy, and with gum of the mimosa. Although the soil and climate are so singularly adapted for the production of this intoxicating drug, yet in 1815, the Board of Trade reported that the two agencies of Bahar and Patna had never been able to supply a greater quantity of opium, in the most favourable seasons, than was sufficient to satisfy the demand for foreign trade, and that during unfavourable seasons (which frequently occur) the quantity had never been equal to meet that object.

In the nature of landed property, there are several distinctions between Bengal and Bahar, of which the following are some of the principal. In Bengal the zemindarries are, or rather were, very extensive; and that of Burdwan alone was equal in produce to three-fourths of Bahar, in which the zemindarries are comparatively small. The power and influence of the principal zemindars in Bengal were proportionally great, and they were able to maintain a degree of independence, which the inferior zemindars of Bahar soon lost. The latter also, having been placed under a provincial administration, from distance as well as comparative inferiority, have been precluded from that degree of information which the zemindars of Bengal, from their vicinity to Calcutta and access to the officers of government, have been able to attain. The lands of Bahar have

from time immemorial been let to farm, and no general settlement, since the acquisition of the Dewanny, had been concluded between government and the possessors of the soil, until the final and perpetual settlement in 1792. There are few instances of jaghire in Bengal, probably not more than three or four, but they are frequent in Bahar. The custom of dividing the produce of the lands in certain proportions between the cultivator and government was almost universal in Bahar; but in Bengal this custom was very partial and limited. Upon the whole, the proprietors of the soil in Bahar were in a degraded state as compared with those of Bengal. In Bahar there are but three principal zemindarries; those of Shahabad, Tirhoot, and Tickary.

Here, as in Bengal, by the too precipitate conclusion of the perpetual revenue settlement, and the abolition of the Canongoe office, the tenant was apparently left at the mercy of the zemindar; but experience has shewn that he does not in practice suffer the hardships to which in theory he would appear exposed, the reciprocal wants of the parties driving them to something like an amicable compromise. The landlord can no more do without the tenant, than the tenant can do without the landlord. The obligation of the latter to pay his land-tax is peremptory, his failure, ruin. Starvation is equally the lot of the cultivator, if he cannot get employment. Nature, however, in this climate requires little; and although frequent instances have occurred of zemindars having been ruined, none have been recorded of a cultivator being starved for want of employment. In reality, the tenants both of Bahar and Benares are certainly in a better condition than during the time of Cossim Ali. One-half of the produce is still the usual share of the cultivators, and the demand for them is so great, that they can and do make better terms. A tenant who had one plough at the time of the perpetual settlement, will now have two or three ploughs, and since that date the hire of a ploughman has nearly doubled, while grain is, on an average, cheaper. And although cloth and some other articles of necessary use are dearer, the cultivator, who was formerly almost naked, is now seen clothed.

The principal rivers of Bahar are the Ganges, the Sone, the Gunduck, the Dummodah, Caramnassa, and the Dewah, the two last being boundary rivers: besides these, there are innumerable smaller streams, the province in general being abundantly supplied with moisture. In the drier tracts south of the Ganges, irrigation is usually effected by water drawn from wells by means of a lever and buckets, and conducted to the fields through sloping channels. In other parts, tanks for the same purpose are formed by damming up a hollow, through which a stream runs, with a mound of earth, as is practised in Mysore and the Carnatic on a larger scale. The towns of the greatest magnitude are Patna, Chuprah, Daoudnagur, Gaya, Boglipoor, Monghir, Arrah, Chittra, and Muzufferpoor. As we advance north through Bahar, the race of natives improve in stature and appearance, as compared with the Bengalese; but they are much more addicted to intoxicating drugs, the deplorable effects of which every village exhibits melancholy evidence; and as to religion, no sanctuary in Hindostan can exhibit so depraved and degraded a crew as the priesthood of Gaya. In respect to their domestic economy, also, the Baharians are decidedly inferior to their neighbours in cleanliness, for nothing can surpass the filthiness of the mud-huts in a Bahar village. These, however, are generally larger than the matted dwellings of the Bengalese, and in towns are not unfrequently of two stories. The connexion betwixt Bengal and Bahar has always been so intimate that it is difficult to separate their histories and statistics, more especially with regard to revenue and population, on which topics the

reader will find some additional information under the head of Bengal.

In a remote era of Hindoo history, as conveyed down by their mythological legends, Bahar appears to have been the seat of two independent sovereignties; that of Magadha, or South Bahar, and that of Mithila (Tirhoot) or North Bahar. Although Gaya, the birth-place of Buddha, the great prophet and legislator of eastern Asia, be within the limits of this province, and is still a revered place of pilgrimage, yet among the resident inhabitants no Buddhists are to be found, so completely has the race been either converted or eradicated, for there is some reason to believe that until the first Mahomedan invasion, the Buddhist religion was professed by the chiefs, and the Jains assert that they were predominant prior to the Buddhists. A specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Magadha, or dialect of South Bahar, when examined by the missionaries, was found to contain twenty-four of the words used in the Bengalese and Hindostany translations, besides some words of pure Sanscrit. At present it is supposed that more than one-third of the inhabitants profess the Mahomedan faith.

The tranquillity enjoyed by this tract of country, since its transfer to the British, is probably unexampled in the history of India, the roar of the cannon at Buxar, in 1764, being the last hostile sound that has reached the ears of its inhabitants. The consequence has been, that the cultivation of the soil, more especially since the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, has been progressively increasing, and the population of particular tracts (for it is difficult to get the natives to transfer their labour to contiguous wastes) absolutely overflowing. On the other hand, religious buildings are visibly on the decline, the followers of the two rival persuasions having no longer, as they formerly had, the wealth necessary for the construction of such edifices. The few which at present piety or superstition finds means to erect are generally poor and insignificant; an observation which also applies to domestic buildings of every description.—(*J. Grant, F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Fullarton, Sir E. Colebrooke, Lord Teignmouth, Gholaum Hossein, &c.*)

BAHAR.—A large district in the Bahar province, of which it occupies the central portion. On the north it is bounded by the Ganges; on the south by the districts of Ramghur and Boglipoor; to the east it has Boglipoor; and on the west Shahabad. Its whole length is about 120 miles, and its extreme width eighty; but the superficial contents do not exceed 5,358 square miles, of which 403 belong to the city of Patna's jurisdiction.

A great proportion of this division is level and highly-cultivated land; but there are also many hills, most of which are extremely rugged, and their sterility rendered more conspicuous by their nakedness. Many of these are scattered about with the utmost irregularity, and stand quite insulated among the soil of the plains. In the heart of the district are three remarkable clusters, one on the west of the Phalgu; one on the east side of that river; the third a long narrow ridge adjacent to Shukpoorah; the whole, however, of inconsiderable elevation, the highest probably not exceeding 700 feet. The hills towards the southern boundary are more considerable, and some of them probably twice that height. From hence a continuation of hills and narrow vallies reaches, with little or no interruption, to Cape Comorin, all of which are considered portions of the Vindhyan mountains that bound the vast Gangetic plain. The hills of the Bahar district no where approach the Ganges, and the interior, reckoning from the Ganges, is in general flat, but not subject to inundation. The term terriani is here applied to the banks of the Ganges, whether high or low, and great pains are taken by cultivators in the collecting and conducting of water.

The Ganges is no where fordable within the limits of this division, at any season of the year, and its channel when clear of islands is generally a mile broad. Besides that noble stream, the chief rivers are the Sone, the Punpun, the Phalgu, the Saeri, and the Panchane, with their numerous branches. The district contains nothing that can be called a lake, nor are the permanent marshes any where extensive. During the rainy season, for the purposes of cultivation, a great proportion of the soil is converted into a marsh; but in the dry season, even the low lands parellel to the Ganges, from Patna downwards, become devoid of moisture. On the banks of the Ganges towards the Sone, west winds prevail from the 13th of January to the 26th of March, from which period until the 12th of June the east and west winds are nearly equal. From the last date until the end of July the east wind prevails, and from then until the end of August the west winds prevail. From that time until the end of October the east winds return, and finally, from that period until the 13th of January, the east and west winds are nearly balanced; many irregularities, however, take place in the periods and duration of these winds. The rainy season is generally of the same length as in Boglipoor; but when the fall has not been very copious from the 15th September to the 15th October, the rice crops suffer, unless there is a good deal of rain towards the end of October. Rains that happen in January are injurious to most crops, especially to wheat, although the fields of that grain require at that season to be artificially watered. Two or three days of cloudy weather, with drizzling rain, will at that season entirely burn up a crop of wheat.

Although the winters are not severe, fires are extremely comfortable, and all the natives who can procure one, sleep by it: yet frosty nights are rare. The heats of spring are excessive, and much aggravated by the dust, there not being at that time a vestige of vegetation, and not only the west winds, but also those from the east, are hot and parching. The heat of the Bahar district is on the whole much higher than that of Tirhoot. Even the difference between Patna and Hajypoor, two places situated opposite to each other on the Ganges, is very perceptible, and between Gaya and Muzufferpoor is much greater than might be inferred from the trifling difference of latitude; yet by the natives Bahar is considered a healthy country, while Tirhoot, except its northern parts, is not considered such. Both Patna and Gaya are found to be hotter than most other parts of the district. The heat of the first seems owing to a great extent of naked sand on an island immediately fronting the town; and that of Gaya, partly to the sands of the Phalgu, and partly to the reflection of the sun from the arid rocks that surround it.

In this district there is much land, of a poor soil, but the proportion absolutely unfit for the plough is not great. Close up to the hills is generally arable, but most of the hills are utterly unfit for tillage of any sort. Near the large rivers of the interior, especially near the immense channels of the Sone and Phalgu, the strong, dry, west winds of spring have blown from the parched beds of the torrents large heaps of sand, that form little hillocks of moving sand, perfectly barren; but in the vicinity of the Ganges a great deal of the land gives two crops a year. The transplanted rice is all fine; but the very finest, named basmati, does not exceed one-fourth of the whole, and is always in great demand among the Baboos of Calcutta. In 1811 there were 24,000 begas under cultivation for cotton, and a great deal was besides imported from the west. The cultivation of tobacco was not great, and that of indigo of little importance.

The rents here are heavy, amounting usually to one-half of the crop, after deducting the expenses of

the harvest, and sometimes to nine-sixteenths; but, except in the cities of Patna and Gaya, or other large market-places, the ashraf or high ranks pay no rent for the land occupied by their houses, nor can any landlord refuse to allot land for the purpose to any ashraf who requires it. The natives of the British isles, however, not being dignified with the title of ashraf, find great difficulty in procuring land to build on, and must always pay an extravagant rent, a circumstance (as Dr. F. Buchanan observes) by no means the usual practice of successful invaders. These ashrafs consist of high castes, both Mahomedan and Hindoo, such as Seids, Patans, Moguls, Brahmins, Khetries, Rajpoots, Kayasthas, and Vaisyas. Although the rent of land is much higher than in the districts further east, where some pay next to nothing, the generality of the people are in much better circumstances. The extent of land here exempted from revenue is quite enormous, and in 1801 was estimated by the collector as equal to half the amount of those paying a land-tax; yet the last were reported to be in the best state of cultivation. Many of these rent-free portions are still large, but, owing to the established rules of succession, are fast frittering away into petty portions. This minute subdivision of property has reduced a great majority of the zemindars to the condition of mere peasants, just a stage above beggary. The profit on the assessed lands is supposed greatly to exceed ten per cent., indeed probably exceeds the whole amount of the revenue (which in 1814 was 1,748,006 rupees), yet the assessed lands up to 1811 had not become saleable property, many of the lots put up to auction by the collector having for want of purchasers fallen into the hands of government, which tends to prove that the settlement made by Lord Cornwallis is not a security even for the revenue which he rendered perpetual. The tricks, chicanery, and roguery, by which this apparently unaccountable predicament has been effectuated, would require, to detail them, a volume of most enormous dimensions, and when narrated, would put to the blush, conjointly and severally, all the pettifoggers in Europe.

The villages here usually consist of mud-walled houses, closely huddled together, so as to render a passage through them on an elephant or in a palanquin often impracticable; but the district being populous, and the inhabitants of a gregarious disposition, it contains a remarkable number of considerable towns, such as Patna, Gaya (the residence of the civil establishment), Daoudnagur, Bar, Dinapoor, Bahar town, &c. &c. In 1811 the population of this district, excluding Patna and its jurisdiction, was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 724,159 Mahomedans, and 2,030,991 Hindoos; total 2,755,150 persons. In 1801 Mehedi Ali Khan, the son of Gholaum Hossein Khan the historian, resided in this district. Slaves of the descriptions called Nufur and Laundi are very numerous, often liberated, seldom sold, and frequently, owing to the poverty of their owners, left to find a subsistence for themselves. Considering how many large towns there are in Bahar, the number of prostitutes is small; and the petty town of Rungpoor, with the small tract immediately adjacent, contains more than the immense city of Patna with the territory attached to it. The convicts here, as in most other districts, are employed on the roads, which, in fact, is doing little more than making a place agreeable to those who keep carriages, and next to nothing to the public, if the natives be considered as forming any part of it.

The six great places of pilgrimage in this district are the river Punpun, Gaya, Rajagripa, Baikuntha on the Panchane, Lohadanda near Geriyak, and Chyaban Muni; but the two last are little frequented. It deserves remark, that the Buddhists and Jains both agree in placing within the limits of South Bahar, and its immediate

vicinity, the locality of the death and apotheosis of the last Buddha, as of the last Jina, and of his predecessor, and his eldest and favourite disciple. Both religions have preserved for their sacred language the same dialect, the Pali or Pracrit, closely resembling the Magadhi, or vernacular language of Magadha, or South Bahar. Between these dialects (the Pali and the Pracrit) there is but a shade of difference, and they are often confounded under a single name.

In this district the feet of a dying person are not put into the river, and the low and ignorant are allowed to die in their houses; but men of rank and learning turn their parents and children out of doors when they think they are about to die. They are then placed on a mat, under every inclemency of the weather, and some sacred herb (the tulsi) or stone (the salgram) is placed by them, while prayers are read until they die. If the expiring person be rich, they put into his hands the tail of a cow, which he gives as his last offering to the Brahmins. Natural affection has in general struggled very hard against the barbarity of this exposure; and although no man can avoid the ceremony, natives of rank, from frequent observation, have acquired a very great skill in marking the symptoms which precede dissolution, so that here their kindred are very seldom exposed until not only all hope of recovery, but until sensation is over. Where custom renders it necessary that they should die with their feet in the river, and their house is at some distance, more suffering must arise from the practice, and conjecture cannot be so certain, because the kindred cannot await the last symptom. In general, when a man is exposed to suffer long, the conduct of the kindred requires investigation, for there can be no doubt that occasionally, though very rarely, this custom has been made the instrument of most atrocious purposes.

Marriage in this country ought rather to be called betrothing, as the wife never enters her husband's house, and does not cohabit with him, until she arrives at the years of maturity, when she is conducted home with great expense and ceremony. In Bengal the wife does not live with her husband until the time of maturity, but she is carried to his house immediately on marriage; and although she returns to her parents, the marriage is always consummated so soon after ten years of age as the astrologer declares the time propitious. All widows here are admitted to the privilege of burning when they receive accounts of their husbands' death, when he has died at a distance. In Bengal, the widows of Brahmins can only burn when they accompany the corpse. A widow at Tikari, in this district, went beyond the custom, as she burned herself ten years after her husband's death, and thereby gained the praise of all, although the action was not strictly legal.

Hindoos of rank and learning here have a great objection to take an oath; and it is said, according to the Gayatri Tantra, it is equally sinful to speak truth as falsehood, when sworn to on the Ganges' water, the toolsee, or the salgram, cows'-dung, or the dust of cows' feet. It is said they have no objections to swear on their sacred books. The Radha Ballavies worship Radha and Krishna, but they differ from the Gossains of Bengal, who worship the same deities, in addressing the goddess before her husband. This sect is most numerous in the countries between Bindrabund and Gujerat.

This district is universally allowed to be in the old Hindoo territory called Magadha, governed in ancient times by Jarasandha, who in the Brahminical legends is called an asur, or enemy of the gods. According to tradition, this prince, being of considerable dimensions, used to stand on two hills in this district, having a foot on each, and look across Hindostan to Dwaraca in Gujerat, at the thousand wives of

his kinsman Krishna, as they bathed in the western ocean, and also pelted them with brick-bats. To revenge these incivilities, Krishna sent his kinsman Bheem to punish Jarasandha, who killed him in a valley near his own house, towards the conclusion of the third age of the world. At present the Hindoo inhabitants, when they wish for an image, take the first that comes to hand in a ruin, and in the selection pay little or no regard, either to the sex or the attribute. Many of the old images are in a superior style for Indian productions, but very far removed from approaching European ideas of perfection.

In the police division of Duryapoor there was a temple on a hill, which the natives told Dr. Francis Buchanan had contained a lingam, which they complained had been removed by Mr. Cleveland to Boglipoor, a proceeding very unlike the conciliatory conduct for which that gentleman was so justly celebrated. On subsequent inquiry, however, it appeared that it had not been a lingam, but an image of the sun, and that it had not been carried away by Mr. Cleveland to Boglipoor; on the contrary, it had been carried away by the late Mr. Davis, one of the directors of the East-India Company; but this gentleman did not consider that he was carrying the sun's image from these villagers, but from a bear that made the ruined temple his abode, and did not appear to have any occasion for an image of that luminary. In fact, the number of images scattered throughout this district is quite incredible.

The era in this district is called Sumbut, but that word implies era, or rather juncture. The Pundits consider their era as that of Vicrama. The year of the Sumbut 1869 began on the first day of the waning moon, in the lunar month Phalgun, which was on the 28th of February 1812. The year consists of twelve lunar months, but after every thirty lunations an intercallary month is added. This year is used every where by the Hindoos in their ceremonies, but is here also used in their civil affairs, which is attended with some inconvenience, as at different years the same months happen at somewhat different seasons.

The great leprosy is found here in two varieties, one of which attacks the small joints, and the other the skin, of which it renders large portions perfectly insensible. The prejudice against the unfortunate persons seized with this dreadful malady is so great, that some of the lower castes, when seized with it, have destroyed themselves. These are placed in a boat, and a pot of sand being tied to their neck, they are conducted to the middle of the Ganges, and there thrown overboard. The people thus destroyed are perfectly willing, both because they are helpless and miserable, and because they think that the sin, to which the disease is attributable, will be removed by dying in the sacred stream, and they cannot afford to pay for the prescribed forms of expiation by prayers and ceremonies. The books of law condemn this species of expiation by drowning: but a passage of the Mahabharat is interpreted in support of it, and where perfectly voluntary, it certainly saves the miserable wretch from much suffering in this world.

Chronic swellings of the legs and throat are not more common than in Boglipoor. That of the throat is generally ascribed to the persons having resided long on the north side of the Ganges, and certainly the vast disparity in the proportion of those affected on the two sides of the Ganges cannot be accounted for on any other principle than some peculiar condition of the water flowing from the Northern mountains, for in every part where this water flows the disease is common.

In the division of Newada, the Jain sect have two places of pilgrimage; one a tank choked up with weeds, especially the Nelumbuim. The temple stands on a small square island, and contains two stones, on each of which there is an inscription, and

the representation of two human feet; but no tradition exists from what cause its reputation for sanctity originated. The Mahomedan population of the district has been estimated at 724,000, and occasionally they still make converts from the pagans, especially by the purchase of slaves, who are usually treated with great kindness; but, for want of money, this mode of conversion now proceeds slowly. The Shiah sect form but an inconsiderable portion of the whole, probably not exceeding 3,000 families, mostly of rank. The number of Brahmins is immense, 80,000 families, most of them having betaken themselves to agriculture and arms; and there are also a considerable number of Hindoos belonging to the sect of Nanock, the Seik lawgiver. The division of Jains named Shrawaks amount to about 350 families. On the annual festival called Dewali, the Gowalas or cowherds tie the feet of a pig, and drive their cattle over the wretched animal until it is killed, after which they boil and eat it; but at other times they do not use pork. On this occasion every rich man sends his cattle to assist in the ceremony, and poor men paint the horns of their cattle in order to make them look handsome.

When the British took possession of this district by far the greater part of it was in a wild state, and the southern half, after being repeatedly plundered by the Maharattas, had fallen into a predatory anarchy. The Mahomedan chief of the tribe of Mayi, and the rajas of Tickary, were the principal leaders in these dissensions; but being coerced by the British power, tranquillity was restored, and a more adequate land-tax imposed. At present most parts of the district are overflowing with population, and the whole would have probably been so, had not the very great extent of rent-free land tended in some divisions to encourage sloth and negligence.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Tyfton, &c.*)

Bahar.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, thirty-five miles S.E. from Patna; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 85° 35′ E. This city was probably at some remote era the capital, but it has since been superseded, first by Patna and afterwards by Gaya. The existing town is a large scattered place, surrounding the ditch of an ancient city, now in a great measure deserted. The most compact part is a long narrow bazar or street, paved in a rough manner with bricks and stones, but of a miserable appearance. In the centre of the town are the remains of a massy stone building, roofed with a number of diminutive domes, which partition its interior into as many cells, resembling the Patan mosques of the upper provinces. Although much decayed it still contains about 5,000 houses, and the vicinity is remarkably well cultivated and artificially irrigated.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Bahawulpoor.—A principality of considerable extent in the province of Mooltan, but thinly peopled, situated principally about the twentieth degree of north lat. The town of Bahawulpoor stands about sixty-two miles S. by E. from the city of Mooltan; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 71° 29′ E.

This territory extends (or did extend in 1809) 280 miles from north-east to south-west, and about 120 miles in the other direction at the extreme points, and for a certain distance includes both banks of the Indus, the Jhylum, and the Chinaub. The banks of the rivers are every where rich, but to the west of the Chinaub the soil at a distance from the river is poor, and towards the east a mere desert. For four or five miles on each side of the Hyphasis the surface is formed of the sediment deposited by the, river and is very rich, but so soft as scarcely to support a horse. Some portions are highly cultivated; others covered with coppice of low tamarisk trees, abounding with wild hogs; hog-deer, wild geese, partridges, and floricans,

are also plenty on the banks of the river. Further east, approaching Bicanere and the Bhatty country, the soil degenerates to an arid sand, destitute of vegetation; to travel through which an establishment of camels is as requisite to carry water, as in the deserts of Arabia.

The principal towns are Bahawulpoor, Ahmedpoor, Seedpoor, and Ooch. The strongest place is the fort of Derawul, which owes its ability of resistance to the utter sterility of the sands that surround it; yet it was the usual residence of Bahawul Khan, the founder of the dynasty. The inhabitants of this district are Juts, Baloochies, and Hindoos, which is the usual mixture of population in the adjacent territories, but within the limits of the principality the Hindoos are the most numerous class.

The town of Bahawulpoor stands within a short distance of the united streams of the Beyah and Sutuleje, here named the Gurrah, which winds very much and is muddy; but the water when filtered is of an excellent quality. In circumference it extends about four miles, but the walls include gardens and mangoe groves. The houses are built of unburned bricks, with mud terraces, and very thin walls of the same material. It is noted for the manufacture of silken girdles and turbans, and the camels being fleet and strong, are in great demand for hunting. The resident inhabitants are principally Juts and Baloochies, both professing the Mahomedan faith: the number of Hindoos is also considerable. Bahawul Khan, the founder of this state, was rather a tributary prince than a governor delegated by the Afghan sovereign. He died in 1811, leaving a son of very inferior abilities, and the state has since fallen a prey to the rapacity of Runjeet Singh, the Seik Raja of Lahore.—(*Elphinstone, Registers, Smith, &c.*)

BAHDORIAH. — A subdivision of the Agra province, intersected by the river Chumbul, partly within the British territories and partly in those belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia.

BAIDYANATH (*or Deoghur*)—A celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Bengal, district of Birbhoom, said to have been built by Raja Praun Mull of Ghiddore; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 86° 40′ E., 110 miles W. by N. from Moorshedabad. The town of Deoghur is situated on a rising ground, and for many miles in extent is surrounded by forests. The temple here is famous for a lingam it contains, respecting which a strange story is told in the puranas, where mention is also made of a river. At present there is no stream whatever, although there are several sacred pools. Pilgrims resorting to Baidyanath usually bring water with them from the prayagas, or sacred junctions on the Ganges, and pour it over the lingam, round which they walk a certain number of times, while others lie down and continue fasting until they have had a favourable dream. Prayers of various sorts are addressed to the presiding deity. Some pray to be kings in the next transmigration, or for such worldly enjoyments as they prefer; others pray for happiness in the heaven of the divinity they address; while some, tired and harassed by the miseries of successive births, pray to be released from existence altogether.

At a particular season the roads are crowded with pilgrims of both sexes and all ages, on horseback and on foot, dressed in quilted cotton, dyed green or yellow, and presenting a most cheerful and animated sight. On his shoulders every man bears a semicircular frame of bamboo, with a basket at each end, decorated with peacocks' feathers and other ornaments. In one of these baskets the pilgrim's baggage is deposited, in the other his stock of Ganges water, in small glass phials holding two or three ounces each, and as many bring an overplus, strangers who have come unprovided are enabled to purchase a small supply of the sacred fluid for

which they pay a high price.—(*Ward, Fullarton, &c.*)

BAILURY.—A town in the territory of the Mysore Raja; lat. 12° 55′ N. lon. 76° 3′ E. In A.D. 1800, cochineal to the weight of 1,500 pounds was made here, upon nopals raised by the farmers as a prickly fence for their gardens; but the insect was of the inferior sort that had been introduced from America.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BAITMAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifteen miles N.W. from the cantonments at Mow: lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 75° 46′ E. In 1820 it was the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Holcar, and contained about 1,500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAITOOL.—A fortified town belonging to the Nagpoor Raja, in the province of Gundwana near the sources of the Tuptee, which springs from the Nyardy hills, fifty-six miles N.N.E. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. It stands near the hill-fort named Kherlah, on the road from Hussingabad to Nagpoor, and is the capital of a pergunnah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAJITPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsing, forty-eight miles N.E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 91° E.

BALABAC.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about eighteen miles in length, by four the average breadth, lying off the southern extremity of the island of Palawan; lat. 8° N., lon. 117° 10′ E.

BALABALAGAN.—A cluster of thirteen small flat islands in the straits of Macassar, covered with trees, and having navigable channels between them. They are also named the little Paternoster Isles. The Biajoos fish here for biche-de-mar, which they strike on the sand at the bottom in eight and ten fathoms, with an iron pronged instrument.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

BALAGHAUT CEDED DISTRICTS.

In the south of India a stupendous wall of mountains, named the ghauts, rises abruptly from the low country, supporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vast extent of level plains, which are so elevated as to affect the temperature, and render the climate cooler. This table-land extends from the Krishna to the southern extremity of Mysore, and is named Balaghaut, or above the ghauts, in contradistinction to Payeenghaut, or below the ghauts. This extensive and fruitful region formed the ancient Hindoo empire of Karnata, no part of which was below the mountains, although in modern times the term has been so misapplied by Europeans and Mahomedans, as to signify exclusively the country (Carnatic) below the ghauts. Under the present head, the term Balaghaut is restricted to the territories acquired by the British government in 1800, and since subdivided into the collectorships of Bellary and Cuddapah. They were acquired by treaty with the Nizam, dated the 12th October 1800, and comprehend all the territory situated south of the Krishna and Toombudra rivers, which fell to the Nizam's share by the treaties of Seringapatam in 1792, and Mysore in 1799, together with the talook of Adoni, and all his Highness's other districts south of these rivers. This large tract of country now composes the Balaghaut ceded districts, and to these two-thirds of Punganoor were added, and part of Goodeput, having been exchanged for certain districts, which had been reserved by the treaty of Mysore as the eventual portion of the Peshwa, but which by the supplemental treaty of Mysore fell into the possession of the British government. Under the ancient native sovereigns, this quarter of the Balaghaut was subdivided into many sections, the chief of which were Kurnoul, Adoni, Cummim, Harponelly, Rydroog, Bellary, Gooty, Ghazi-

poor, Cuddapah, Dupaud, Gurrumcondah, Punganoor, and Sidhout.

The ceded districts contain more ground than Scotland, and occupy the centre of what is improperly termed the peninsula, which inland position seems to occasion the frequent droughts experienced in these territories. The northern boundary is well defined, and the Toombudra river formerly afforded a sure protection for many months of the year. It also fills some water-courses that irrigate the country about Bijanagur, the ancient Hindoo capital, and about Rampoor in Adoni. Owing to the elevated surface of this region, it has no large rivers, except the Krishna and Toombudra, which mark its boundaries to the north. The southern portion of the ceded districts consists of vallies lying between the eastern ghaut mountains, which extend from Colar to Gurrumcondah, and from thence stretch inland as far west as Sera. To the north of these divisions are Cuddapah, Gooty, and Bellary, which lie lower than the mountain vallies to the south, but are intersected in different directions by many ranges of low hills.

The soil of these territories is generally good, especially the black land, which when cleaned and properly ploughed requires nothing more than a harrowing for the next twenty years; in fact, a farmer may cultivate a field of this description for his whole life, without perhaps ploughing it more than once. The black soil is most common in the western divisions, where a noble plain of this description is seen from the top of Adoni hill, stretching north-west and south-east from Gooty to the Toombudra, fifty miles long by from sixteen to twenty broad, which, whether it be considered as an object of agriculture, or as a landscape, presents a grand prospect. This rich soil appears to be pure black mould from two to twelve feet deep, but how and when first collected remains unknown. It contains no vestiges of decayed branches or trees, while the red and black soils are often abruptly mixed; the latter, indeed, is found among rocks where trees never could have grown. Round the hills and rocks, which abound, the soil is usually a red gravel, and both black and red soils are mixed with sand and calcareous stones. In some red fields they do not even attempt to clear the land of stones, as every successive ploughing raises a new crop of stones, which in some respects are not detrimental.

The soil here is in general more fertile than either Canara or Malabar. Two or three nights' rain will ensure a greater crop, in proportion to the extent of surface and seed, than six months' drizzling in Canara. The black soil is the most fertile, and when once ploughed requires little further trouble; but as the red soil is worked with slighter and cheaper tools, the poorer classes of farmers are generally settled on it. Drill husbandry is universal. The rains are uncertain, but ought to fall in June, at which period all the peasantry are looking up to the heavens for a shower, as one good night's rain is sufficient to enable the cultivator to sow his seed: but if it fails in June, the whole crop is in danger of being lost. If a little of the rain which deluges Canara, tears up the soil, and injures the agriculture, could be transferred to the ceded districts, they would be among the most fertile of Hindostan. As it is, the rains are heavy in September and October, when they often do as much damage by bursting the tanks as their absence occasions during the earlier months.

The labour and expense of clearing black land are very great. Having cut down the shrubs and bushes on 100 acres, the farmer proceeds to plough east and west for one month, and then north and south for another. The succeeding month is employed in grubbing up the roots, after which it is harrowed by a ponderous machine for one month and a half. This last-mentioned implement is so heavy as to require twelve or sixteen bullocks,

which work from morning until noon and then rest. After the first great harrowing they again harrow with two smaller machines and six bullocks for a fortnight, and finally with a still smaller drawn by two bullocks. The work, however, does not finish here, for labourers are required for two weeks longer to clear the ground of roots; after which light harrows are again employed. This previous preparation being completed, cotton and koraloo are sown together by a drill machine, after which it undergoes repeated harrowing, hoeing, and drilling, and about three or four months afterwards the crop is ripe, when it is reaped by three or four gatherings in the course of a month. If it be taken care of there will be no occasion to plough a field prepared in this manner for twenty years; but it must be annually harrowed with four bullocks before the seed is scattered, for if this be neglected, the great plough and heavy machinery must be again brought out. There is still much waste land in this province, where poverty cramps and deadens the efforts of the cultivator. In some parts the seed is put into the ground without any previous process, and pressed down by a bush on which a large stone has been placed instead of a harrow.

The red soil requires turning up and ploughing, ten or twelve bullocks being necessary for one hundred acres. It is first cleared by hand labour with the hoe and hatchet, and then well ploughed. It is in general full of stones, which in some places they do not attempt to move. Sometimes they manure by folding sheep, one thousand being necessary to manure six acres, when kept on it ten nights, which process however must be annually repeated. At other times they manure with the dust, ashes, and refuse of the village, which is thinly spread after a shower and ploughed in; this will last four years. The seed is then deposited by a drill of a simple construction, consisting of three shares, which make their furrows about an inch deep. Three hollow bamboos are placed directly over the shares, joined at the top in one cup, from whence the seed drops through the bamboos into the furrow. A woman follows the plough holding a hollow bamboo perpendicularly, with a cup at the top, into which she pours seed of a large size. The bamboo is dragged along by the drill machine, to which it is fixed by a string five or six feet long, the female holding it steady with one hand while she pours in the seed with the other. The plough with a horizontal share drawn by two bullocks follows, cutting the earth horizontally and filling up the furrow. To manage the drill and horizontal ploughs, four persons and four bullocks are necessary. One person drives the bullocks; another pours in the seed, of which eight different kinds are frequently sown together; a woman conducts the hollow cylinder dragged after, and a man or boy drives the bullocks that follow with the horizontal plough. Before they begin to work, the machine is painted and consecrated.

The great armies that have so often traversed this province have destroyed the trees, except a few clumps which are chiefly found among the hills: no expense thereforeshould be spared in promoting the planting of trees, especially of palmiras. According to the survey accounts there are 50,258 wells in the Balaghaut ceded districts, of which, in 1807, above 13,914 were out of repair. Garden produce was then supposed only to pay about six and one-eighth per cent. of the land rent. The bare rocks and absence of wood gives the surface a rugged and savage appearance, which well agrees with the character of the people, who are more laborious and hardy, and at the same time more ferocious, than the natives below the ghauts; their food, dress, and weapons, are also more manly than those of their lowland neighbours, and on the first acquisition of the territory, every inhabitant not only carried, but was accustomed to the use of arms, while

every village was fortified. At that era they were also, probably, the poorest people under the British government. So far were they from having any property in the soil, like the landholders of Canara and Malabar, they were seldom even fixed tenants, but migrated from farm to farm, and from village to village, where they clubbed together to carry on their cultivation. Even the houses were government property, and the only proprietors of land were the enaumdars. The enaum, or charity lands of the village, were established during the Hindoo empire of Bijanagur, and tolerably well tilled. These lands had been resumed and measured by Tippoo, who laid his hands on every thing; but the ingenuity of individuals rendered the resumption little more than nominal.

The troubles that so long prevailed in the ceded districts before they were transferred to the Madras presidency, occasioned the destruction of all the ancient revenue accounts; there is reason, however, to conclude, from the tenour of all tradition, from existing documents, and from inquiries, that the land has all along been the property of government. The ancient princes were accustomed to grant away the property in the soil, as well as the government rent, a proof that the land entirely belonged to government. Tradition states that the Bijanagur dynasties took half the produce estimated in kind, and converted it into money at a rate unfavourable to the farmers and cultivators. The avowed principle of the Mahomedans, after the conquest of Bijanagur in A D. 1564, was an equal division of the produce between the government and cultivator, the share of the first being converted into money at the average of ten preceding years, but the last was further burthened with the payment of fees. It is said that, at the period above-mentioned, there were few chiefs like the present poligars. The chiefs of Anantpoor, Raydroog, and Ouke, were great officers of state under the Bijanagur sovereigns, and held their districts as personal jaghires for their maintenance. Even the Annagoondy Rajas, the descendants of the royal race who so long ruled the south of India, were at last subdued, and though permitted to hold a few districts, were subjected to peshcush. The brood of poligars, that afterwards did so much mischief, sprung up between the period above alluded to and the reign of Aurengzebe.

War, famine and bad management, all combined for many years to depopulate the ceded districts and diminish their revenue; but the incessant rebellions of the poligars seem to have been the main cause of their decline. These poligars were originally either public officers of government, who held villages for their personal maintenance, or they were renters who set up for themselves, or lastly they were usurpers. Some were merely potails or head villagers, who, taking advantage of the strength of the country and weakness of the government, withheld the revenue and levied troops. These self-created chiefs kept up all the state, and were installed with all the formality of legitimate sovereigns, although their incomes did not exceed from two to three hundred pagodas per annum, and their pretensions were never acknowledged by any of the different governments that preceded the British in the administration of the province. Neither the Cuddapah nabobs, however, nor the Maharattas, could keep them in subjection, or compel them to pay their tribute with regularity; while the struggles to enforce it on one side, and to resist it on the other, produced unceasing broils, and distracted the country during the whole of the eighteenth century. In fact, neither Hyder, Tippoo, or the Nizam, made the slightest progress in restoring tranquillity, and anarchy had attained its utmost perfection in these districts when they were transferred to the British government. During this period of distraction the poligars withheld the revenues in order to raise a force to defend themselves;

the army sent against them plundered on all sides, so that their rebellion and reduction were equally destructive to the miserable cultivators.

In A.D. 1800 the British functionaries entered the Balaghaut ceded districts, where they found confusion worse confounded. The inhabitants had been plundered, not only by the revenue officers, but by every person who could pay a bribe for the privilege of trying to extort money. The chief inhabitants had not only been permitted, but encouraged to carry on a predatory warfare against each other on the same terms. The indolence and corruption of the Nizam's officers influenced them to abandon the collection of the revenue to poligar zemindars, and the head-men of villages. Every village was a garrison, the inhabitants of which frequently turned out and fought a pitched battle with the village nearest to them. The Nizam's troops were always engaged in the siege of some place, while the exactions of those thus armed with authority, and the habitual obstinacy of the village people, made it difficult to say which was in the right. Murders were so common that few families of note had escaped assassinations, or were themselves unpolluted with blood. In those times the head-man acted the part of a little potentate in his own village, and the anarchy that pervaded the province might in some measure justify his taking on himself the dictatorship of his little republic; but the impunity which a few hundred rupees secured for the most atrocious crimes, tempted every man who could afford it, to indulge his rapacity, malice, or ambition. In most parts the head-man of the village, the head cultivator, and the village accountant, so peaceable in the Company's old territories, had become leaders of banditti, chiefs of robbers, and sanguinary ruffians, garrisoning dens and strong-holds. To the east matters were still worse, for there the poligars had generally resumed their former situations and depredations. The impotence, in short, of the Nizam's officers, the predatory and military habits of the natives, so frequently overrun by large armies, the frequent transfers from one government to another, and the frontier situation which enabled offenders to escape, had introduced a state of anarchy scarcely ever excelled in the annals of India.

The strong arm of the British power established a reluctant tranquillity, and the country was beginning to recover from its state of desolation, when a severe drought, in 1803, greatly injured it. In many parts the failure of the dry crop was so complete, that the blade never appeared above ground, in others it never produced an ear, but withering, was abandoned to the cattle. Unfortunately, the same drought that prevailed in 1803, continued with unabating severity throughout 1804, when the evils were infinitely aggravated. The continuance of the drought for two years had parched up the ground; there was no grass in the pastures, straw was enormously dear; a great proportion of the cattle perished, and many of the poorer inhabitants were forced to quit their houses. During this year the drought was so severe, that nothing but the prudent measures adopted by the principal collector (Sir Thomas, then Colonel Munro) to alleviate, and more especially his abstaining from all the measures which so frequently aggravate a scarcity, could have saved the country from the horrors of a famine, such as then desolated the Nizam's country, and such as had in former seasons, not so bad, desolated the ceded districts. The rice here, in June 1804, was eight seers per rupee, while on the opposite side of the Krishna, at the distance of only thirty miles, it was five seers. The soil and produce of Adoni in the British territory, and of Raichoor in that of the Nizam, are nearly the same, and they are only separated by the Krishna; yet in Raichoor there was a famine, when in Adoni there was only a scarcity, and both were equally protected by the army under

General Campbell. In 1805, a great increase of revenue took place in consequence of a favourable season following the two preceding years of dearth, and ever since these districts have greatly improved, notwithstanding the recurrence of bad seasons, and other serious obstacles from a turbulent population.

The ceded districts, when obtained in 1800, were placed under Col. Thomas Monro, and were valued in the deed of cession at 1,651,545 star pagodas, including all heads of revenue. The collector, in the first instance, fixed his rate much below what had been the former demand, increasing it only as the means of the cultivator and the state of the country improved. In the course of seven years the land revenue alone increased from 1,006,593 to 1,517,272 pagodas, and under the able management of Col. Munro, the inhabitants of the province, from disunited hordes of lawless freebooters, became as far advanced in civilization, submission to the laws, and obedience to the magistrates, as any other subjects under the Madras presidency. In 1817, the total gross collections of the two districts (Bellary and Cuddapah) into which this province was divided amounted to 1,740,304 star pagodas.

In 1806, after the survey of the province was completed, instructions were issued to make out new returns of the number of inhabitants in every village, as far as was practicable by actual muster, except with those castes who seclude their women from public view. The total number of inhabitants, according to the lists returned, amounted to 1,917,376 persons, which shewed an increase of one-fourth of the population in five years of tranquillity, partly arising from the return of persons who had emigrated during the Nizam's domination, but the remainder must be attributed to the falsity of former returns. These records of the population tended to prove that the males exceeded the females in number one-tenth The number of cattle, sheep, and goats could not be ascertained with the same accuracy, their owners having a superstitious prejudice against their being counted by others, or even by themselves.

Within the limits of this province districts are subdivided into villages, under the guidance of potails, or head farmers, by whom the peasantry are guided. In all villages the latter are in the habit of meeting and debating on the subject of rent, and there are many villages where they settle among themselves the exact proportion of the whole rent that each individual is to pay; they are called veespuddi, or sixteenth villages, from the land rent being divided into sixteenth shares. A great part of the Cuddapah district is composed of these villages, and they are scattered, though more thinly, over other parts of the country. When the season for cultivation draws near, the peasantry of the veespuddi villages assemble to regulate their several rents for the year; the pagoda is usually the place chosen for this purpose, from the idea that its sanctity will render the engagements with each other more binding; every village being in this manner a small collectorate, conducted by a potail or head farmer. This quarter having been brought under subjection by the Mahomedans at a comparatively late period, and never thoroughly subdued or settled, a very great proportion of the inhabitants follow the Brahminical persuasion; but in the larger places, such as Cuddapah, Bellary, Adoni, and Curnoul, many Mahomedans are to be found. That the courts of justice in the Balaghaut ceded districts have but few causes is partly accounted for by their poverty, law being as yet too expensive a luxury.

Indigo is here raised and exported in considerable quantities, and the coarse sugar manufactory is also on the increase. Cotton is one of the chief productions, which although it at first languished, is now rapidly on the increase, the peasantry, in general, being a very industrious race, and most of them cultivators by caste.

Diamond mines are found in many parts of the ceded districts, especially in the eastern and central divisions. In the Chinoor pollam, not far from Cuddapah, there are two places, called Condapetta and Ovalumpally, where these gems are found; and in the next talook, at Lamdoor and Pinchetgapadoo, as also in the Gooty division. All the diamond mines in this part of India, with a few exceptions, lie between the Krishna and Pennar rivers, from which tract the famous Golconda diamonds were procured, the country so called not producing any.

In remote times this province formed part of the last existing Hindostan empire of Bijanagur, to which article the reader is referred for some historical particulars. A great proportion of the modern poligars claim descent from the officers of the Bijanagur dynasties, and some, direct from the royal family. After the fall of the Mogul emperors of Delhi it contained several independent Mahomedan states, especially the Patan nabobs of Adoni and Cuddapah, and suffered encroachments from the curturs, or chiefs of Mysore. It was mostly conquered by Hyder, between 1766 and 1780, and in 1800 was, by treaty with the Nizam, as before related, transferred to the British government. In a political and military point of view, these districts are at present of great value, for they are now what the Carnatic formerly was, the countries from which our armies in the Deccan must draw their supplies of cattle and provisions. While under the Nizam, their revenue declined every year, and an army was constantly in the field, the expense of which consumed the collections; indeed, the country was then in so distracted a state, that the Nizam seemed to have given it up to the British because he could not retain it in subjection.—(*Thackeray, Sir Thomas Munro, 5th Report, Hodgson, Rennell, &c.*)

Balambangan (*properly Berobangan*).—A small island in the Eastern seas, about fifteen miles in length by three in breadth, lying off the northern extremity of Borneo; lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 117° 5′ E. The harbour called the north-east is the largest; but at that on the south side, where the English settled, the ground is swampy. The soil is rich and fruitful; the harbour abounds with fish, and is very convenient for watering. In 1774 the East-India Company formed a settlement here with a view to the spice trade; but next year were treacherously expelled by the Sooloos, who surprised the Buggess centinels, turned the guns against the guard, and drove the settlers on board their vessels. The settlement was re-established in 1803, but afterwards abandoned. The island was uninhabited prior to 1774, and has probably remained so ever since the British quitted it.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Balangode.—A town in the island of Ceylon, district of Suffragam, fifty miles S. by E. from Candy, and 1742 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 6° 23′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.

Balasinore.—A town and petty state in the province of Gujerat, whose chief is named the Babi of Balasinore. It stands near the Seyrei river, about forty-one miles east from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 59′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E.

Balasore (*Valeswara*).—A large straggling town in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Boori Balang river, 125 miles S.W. from Calcutta; lat. 21° 32′ N., lon. 86° 56′ E. A group of five rocky hills project boldly forth to within seventeen miles of the bay of Bengal, known to old navigators as the Nelligreen (neel gheree, blue mountains). This was formerly a flourishing town, and at an early period of European intercourse, the Portuguese, Dutch, and English had factories here. It has since much fallen off; but what remains, though meanly built, forms a town of considerable extent, here and there exhibiting a deserted European-built house, denoting its former miscellaneous in-

habitants. Indeed the sites of several factories may still be traced, by a ruined gateway, a group of tombstones, or some such memorial, and the foreign flags are still hoisted on the respective premises by a Portuguese writer, who for sixteen rupees per month officiates on behalf of the different sovereigns, who have long ceased to have any other representative. The salt agent for the Cuttack district usually resides at Chundepoor, on the sea-beach, a few miles from hence, where salt is manufactured by lixiviating the mud according to the process practised in the Sunderbunds. Formerly a considerable quantity of grain was exported to the south; but this branch of trade has of late years declined, owing to the long-continued peace enjoyed by the Madras territories, which has enabled them to supply their own consumption without importation. Balasore, however, is still the principal port of the Cuttack district, and is provided with dry docks, to which vessels not drawing more than fourteen feet of water can be floated at spring tides. In 1822 it was estimated to contain 10,000 inhabitants, and was frequented chiefly by Maldive vessels, salt boats, and a class of sloops that carry rice to Calcutta during the cold season. Travelling distance from Calcutta 141 miles.—(*Fullarton, Stirling*, 10 *Reg., Leckie, Bruce, &c.*)

Bali Isle.—See Bally.

Balij.—A town in the province of Gujerat, Kaira district, thirty-three miles S.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon 73° 10′ E. This place, until 1817, although completely insulated by the British dominions, belonged to the Guicowar, from whom it was obtained in exchange for another tract of equal value.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Balky (*Phalaki*).—A town in the province of Beeder, twenty-two miles N.W. from the city of that name; lat. 18° N., lon 77° 19′ E. Fifty years ago this was a large town, but it is now much decayed, and answers better to the description of a village.—(*Upton, Register, &c.*)

Ballapoor.—A town in the Berar province, fifty-eight miles S.W. from Ellichpoor; lat. 20° 39′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E.

Balliaghaut.—This place is now comprehended within the limits of Calcutta, being properly its port for the eastern inland navigation, although within the memory of inhabitants still alive a jungle intervened two miles in extent, infested by tigers and other ferocious animals. A remarkable change has since taken place, there being a handsome avenue of gardens and houses the whole way. It is situated near the western extremity of two shallow muddy salt lakes, which at low water are nearly empty, but when full admit native craft of considerable burthen.—(*Fifth Report, &c.*)

Bally (*Bali or Little Java*).—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Java by the strait of Bally, and lying between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude. The south-eastern extremity of Java is in lat. 8° 41′ S., lon 114° 25′ E. Table Point, the southern promontory of Bally, is in lat. 8° 50′ S. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles, by thirty-five the average breadth. The coast rises gradually for ten miles towards the interior, to a ridge of mountains which stretches across from east to west, and terminates at the eastern end in the peak of Bally, which is volcanic. The straits are narrow in some parts, and a six-knot tide runs at full and change.

This island exhibits the same geological features as Java, but it has an iron-bound coast, and is destitute of harbours, and even of safe anchorage. The lands are irrigated by abundant streams and rivulets from the mountains, and are remarkably productive. In the lower tracts the chief article of food is rice, but in the upper maize and sweet potatoes; the animal food is mostly swine's flesh and beef, the price

of an ox seldom exceeding 12s. sterling. A considerable number of ox and buffaloe hides are in consequence exported, but the natives have not yet learned the art of salting their hides. Besides these the chief exports are rice, birds'-nests, coarse cloths, cotton yarn, salted eggs, dingding, gambir, and oil; the principal imports, opium, betel-nut, ivory, gold, and silver. Unlike the Malays, the Balinese abhor a seafaring life, nor are they much addicted to merchandizing, the Buggess prows (in 1824, about fifty) being the grand carriers of the Archipelago. The most profitable trade not long ago was that of slaves, which has since much diminished: yet from 300 to 1,000 are still annually exported, mostly by the Chinese, who prefer them on account of their superior strength and intelligence.

The natives of Bali excel the Malays and Javanese in stature and muscular strength, and appear a superior race to the generality of the Eastern islanders. The Chinese population is also considerable, especially at Blelling. The demand of the chiefs for a share in the crops rests on the peculiar husbandry of the country, which depending greatly on irrigation, of which he is the distributor, he claims in consequence for the water expended. The constitution is essentially despotic, as modified by the system of village government, which prevails here as in Java. In 1815, the ordinary price of rice was 133 pounds for three-fourths of a Spanish dollar.

In Java, the establishment of a Mahomedan government for nearly four centuries has tended to obliterate the general knowledge of the better educated; but in Bali the Hindoo faith, however perverted by local superstitions, is still the paramount religion, the Mahomedan doctrines having made little progress, and no portion of the island having ever been permanently subjected to European authority. The great majority of the Balinese are Hindoos, of the sect of Siva, subdivided in the four great castes of Brahmins, Khetries, Vaisyas, and Sudras. There are also a few Buddhists, and a class of outcasts held impure, and designated by the Hindoo name of Chandala. The Balinese Brahmins may be considered as genuine adherents of Vyas; but the great mass of the populace, like those of Bengal, worship their tutelary gods, every village, mountain, forest, and river having its peculiar deity. The Brahmins are treated with great respect, and conduct the administration of justice, civil and criminal. They have their hair bound up in a knot, but do not wear the distinguishing thread; the three inferior castes crop their hair short. Princes are usually, but not invariably, of the military caste, as in 1815 the Raja of Carang Assem, the most powerful on the island, was of the mercantile class. Little attention is paid by the great mass of inhabitants to the Brahminical doctrines of purity and impurity of food, for they eat beef without remorse, and hogs and poultry are among their daily luxuries. The sacerdotal class, however, are more scrupulous, and restrict themselves to a vegetable diet.

In Bally there are no religious mendicants, or ascetics addicted to extravagant acts of mortification, but the practice of sacrificing the widow and concubine at the funeral pile of the husbands, is carried to an excess unknown in Hindostan. These immolations are most frequent among the military and trading castes, for a female of the servile class rarely undergoes the sacrifice; and, what is more extraordinary, one of the sacred order never does. When the father of the present Raja of Blelling was burned, seventy-four women mounted the pile along with the corpse. The Balinese language is a rude, simple, and peculiar dialect, besides which there is a copious and refined language of deference, borrowed from the Sanscrit and Javanese. The Hindoo era of Salivahana or Saca, seventy-eight years date after the birth of Christ, is universally used here, under the de-

nomination of Saca-warsa-chandra. It is said that the Brahmins here are able to calculate eclipses from tables in their possession, but this fact has not yet been well established.

In A.D. 1815 the island of Bally was divided into eight states, each independent, and governed by its own chief. At that date the total population was loosely estimated at 800,000 souls; but as the computation was founded on the number of males whose teeth had been filed, no great accuracy is to be expected; viz.

In Klongkong	30,000
Carrang-assem	50,000
Badong	20,000
Blelling	30,000
Tabanan	40,000
Mergui	20,000
Giangur	50,000
Taman Bali	10,000

At present the state of Klongkong is allowed to be of the highest antiquity; yet in 1633, when the Dutch solicited assistance at Bally, the prince of Gelgel appears to have been paramount. In 1814, the Raja of Blelling's brothers having insulted the British post at Blambangan, in Java, an expedition called at Java on its way to Celebes, and received the submission of several Rajas, and during some time the town and crattan of Blelling were occupied by a British garrison.—(*Craufurd, Raffles, Thorn, Forrest, Leyden, &c.*)

BALOOCHISTAN,

(*Or the Country of the Baloochies*).—The boundaries of Baloochistan, in their widest acceptation, are, the Indian ocean to the south; Seistan and Afghanistan to the north; the provinces of Laristan and Kerman to the west; and to the east Shekarpoor and the Sinde territories. Within these limits are comprehended the provinces of Jhalawan and Sarawan, Mekran and Lus, Cutch Gundava, and Hurrund Dajel, Kohistan, and the desert. The space may be described as being included between the latitudes of 24° 50′ and 30° 40′ north, and the longitudes of 58° 55′ and 67° 30′ east; but some sections of country exceed these limits east and west. The whole of this extensive region composed the dominions of Nassir Khan, the father of the late Khan of Kelat; but since his death, in 1795, it has undergone many political and territorial changes.

To the south, Baloochistan Proper commences at Bayla, from which place it extends northward to Nooshky, seventy-nine miles N.W. from Kelat. This country is described as "a confused heap of mountains, through which the roads generally lead in water-courses and the dry beds of small rivers. Jhalawan is the most southerly district of Baloochistan, and Sarawan the most northerly. They are a mass of mountains from Kohunwat, on the frontiers of Lus, to the desert which separates them from Candahar; the length of this stupenduous range is 350 miles, but varies in breadth at different places. These mountains are barren, being chiefly composed of coarse, black stone; the vallies of Wudd, Khozdar, and Sohrab are capable of cultivation. The climate of this alpine region assimilates in a considerable degree to that of Europe, experiencing four distinct seasons: spring, summer, autumn, and winter. The heat is seldom unpleasantly great, but during the months of December, January and February, cold is intense.

The plains of Wudd, Khozdar, and Sohrab, produce, in favourable seasons, plentiful crops of wheat, barley and jowaree, and in some of the lesser vallies grass grows abundantly. Flocks of sheep and cattle are numerous in every part of the country. Jhalawan and Sarawan are subdivided into smaller districts, and every district into innumerable khails or societies, each of which furnish their quota of troops, according to the population or the exigence of the service. Shal and Mustung, two stages to the north of Kelat, were given to Nassir Khan by Nadir Shah for his services at Mished, and Hurrund Dajel for those in Hindostan. Nooshky is a small tract of about thirty-six square miles, at the base of the Kelat mountains. It is an arid tract, the

sandy hills of which are continually shifting with the winds. A slender stream called the Xymur issues from the hills, and irrigates a small portion of the country; and there are also small patches of land capable of cultivation in different parts of the sand, but which frequently become quite sterile for want of rain. The inhabitants of this tract dwell under black felts, stretched over wicker-work made of the guz plant. This species of village is named tooman or khail, and in most of them a few Hindoos are to be found.

The soil of Nooshky being so sandy, the heat in the summer months is excessive: on which account the inhabitants migrate to the mountains for cool air and water, as the stream at that season fails in the valley. The inhabitants import grain from Cutch Gundava, and Seistan, and dates from Mekran. The Baloochies here are called Nharroes and Rukhsani, and are related to those of the same tribe in Seistan and Bunpoor. In appearance they are tall men, with small bones; are extremely idle and dissolute, and addicted to thieving. They undertake predatory incursions to Mekran, and carry off into slavery every person they capture worth the trouble; some they sell at Kelat and Candahar, the remainder are brought into the horde, and incorporated with it. In this part of the country all the Baloochies understand Persian; but they speak a dialect of the Baloochy among themselves, different from the Koorgalee spoken by the Brahooees. Sohrab is a fine valley, extending north and south fifty miles, by about twelve in breadth. The middle, through which the water runs from the hills, is well cultivated, with many villages scattered about half a mile asunder. The mountains in many parts of Baloochistan are inhabited by shepherds, who reside in temporary huts, erected on any spot that offers good pasturage.

The general soil of Baloochistan is sandy, stony, and arid, and the mountainous tracts consist mostly of hard black rock. The earth on the plains is mixed with such a profusion of pebbles and small stones that the mould is scarcely visible: yet this most unpromising mixture produces, when properly tilled and irrigated, abundant crops of wheat and barley, and where uncultivated, grass of a luxuriant growth. In the parched and desert portion of Baloochistan the date tree bears the first rank in point of importance. The best timber is procured from the apoor tree (greatly resembling the teak) and the tamarind, both remarkably hard and durable, and of great dimensions, to which may be added, the babool, tamarisk, and mulberry. The neem, peepul, sissoo, chinar, mangoe, walnut and sycamore, are also found in different tracts; but the oak, ash, and fir are unknown. Almost every description of mineral is said to be found here, but our information on this head is as yet defective. Rock-salt is common to the westward, and on the road from Cutch Gundava there is a range of hills, containing salt of a perfectly red colour and aperient quality. In that vicinity sulphur and alum are also found, and to the west of Nooshky white and grey marble.

The wild and domestic animals of Baloochistan are very numerous, comprehending both tropical and European classes. The horses are strong, well boned, and large, but usually vicious. Those exported to India are mostly reared to the south of Kelat, and in Cutch Gundava. The sheep are of the fat-tailed species. The camel and dromedary are highly prized by the Baloochies; the first for burthen, the last for speed.

There are few countries so wholly without commodities suited to commercial exchange as Baloochistan; partly owing to the aversion of the natives to regular industry, and partly to the physical nature of the country, consisting either of stupendous mountains, or arid plains destitute of moisture, vegetation, or navigable rivers, the roads being generally nothing but the dry beds of torrents. The population is also dispersed into small

societies, hostile to each other, and yielding scarcely a nominal obedience to any chief. The exports from Kelat are at present insignificant, but it was once the great channel of merchandize from Khorasan, Candahar, Cabul, and India. The imports from Hindostan consist of iron, tin, lead, steel, copper, indigo, betel-nut, cochineal, sugar, spices, silks, kincaubs, gold cloths, chintzes, and coarse woollens. Land watered by wells pays one-twentieth of the produce; that by the rains from one-tenth to one-sixteenth; and that by natural springs a still higher proportion.

The inhabitants are divided into two great classes, severally known by the appellations of Baloochy and Brahooee, which are again subdivided into an infinite number of tribes, khails, and tomuns. Between these two great classes there are leading distinctions of language and appearance, but the national aggregate is exclusively denominated Baloochies, partitioned into three distinct tribes, the Nharooees, the Rinds, and the Mughsees. These are mostly stationary, but the Brahooees are more migratory and unsettled. The latter have tall persons, long visages, and high features; the former short, thick bones, round faces, and flat lineaments, and the hair and beards of both are brown. In husbandry and domestic occupations the Brahooees are hard workers. Those residing near the plains till large tracts of land, and dispose of the produce to the Hindoos for exportation. This and the sale of cheese and ghee, the produce of their flocks, with a few coarse blankets, carpets, and felts, form the only traffic in which the Brahooees engage. Their food is the same as that of the Baloochies, except that they prefer flesh meat half cooked, without bread, salt, or vegetables, to any other species of nourishment.

The Brahooees and Baloochies are equally noted for their hospitality; but the latter are less addicted to rapine and predatory violence, yet are fully equal in personal bravery and the endurance of hardships. They are also considerably exempted from the worst traits of the Baloochy character, which are avarice, a vindictive disposition, and proneness to cruelty. All the Baloochies are excellent marksmen, but the Brahooees excel in strength and courage. They train greyhounds with great care, and frequently exchange them for one or two camels, or pay 400 rupees for one of superior quality. The breed of shepherds' dogs is also excellent. The broad-sword exercise and shooting at a mark are favourite amusements with the Brahooees, and, as swordsmen, they are said to surpass most of their neighbours. Their common dress is an under coat which fits close to the body, and is worn over the pyrahun or shirt; their trowsers are gathered up at the ancle, and they wear a small round flat-topped cap of felt silk. The shepherds wear a covering of white felt above the shirt in winter, with cloth trowsers and a small felt cap. Petty quarrels are usually adjusted by the chief of the khail or society; but an appeal in capital cases may be made to Kelat, except when a traveller has been murdered, on which emergencies the nearest chief is authorized to carry the law into execution.

In religion, both the Baloochies and Brahooees are of the orthodox Soonee sect of Mahomedans, and strenuous adversaries to the Shias. Neither the Baloochy nor the Brahooee are written languages, and the early history of both tribes is entirely traditional. On examining the translation of the Lord's Prayer into the Baloochy dialect, the missionaries found only four words of Sanscrit origin. The Baloochy partakes considerably of the idiom of the modern Persian, from which at least half its words are borrowed, but greatly disguised by a peculiar pronunciation. The Brahooee, on the contrary, in no respect resembles the Persian in sound, but contains a great many Hindu words, having a strong resemblance as they strike the ear to the Punjabee dialect. The Dehwars

of Baloochistan speak pure Persian, and resemble in every respect the Tajiks of Afghanistan. Among the dispersed societies of Baloochistan there are a few Hindoos scattered, who carry on the miserable traffic of the country, and act as money-changers, and agents to the native chiefs. It is probable that long after the first Mahomedan invasion, a great proportion of the country still continued in the occupation of the Hindoos; but for more than a century past, the Mahomedan tribes have been progressively so increasing in barbarity that no medium could be observed, and the native Hindoos have either undergone compulsory conversion, or deserted the country. A converted tribe of Hindoos, at present settled in Cutch Gundava, still retain the name of Gooroowanee, or disciples of the Gooroo, or Brahminical priest. The few Hindoos who migrate to this quarter from Hindoostan, for the purposes of trade, seldom bring their families, and have probably degenerated, as travellers have not observed among them that repugnance to flesh meat which characterizes most of the purer castes of India.

More than two centuries ago the city of Kelat, with the surrounding country, was possessed by Sewah Raja, a Hindoo, at which period the Baloochies (as at present) tended flocks in the mountains. The inhabitants were then much infested by the depredations of the people residing in the low country lying between Kelat, Sinde, and Shikarpoor; and to protect them, the Raja sent for Kumbar (which in the Baloochy signifies an Abyssinian) a Baloochy chief, and took him into his service, allowing him five bundles of grass and wood daily for each man. In progress of time this chief increased his followers, and seizing on the government, raised the tribute to 100 bundles of grass and wood per day, besides a contribution of horses, camels, and foot-runners. This tribute is still occasionally exacted by the khans of Kelat, and paid by the dehwars, or peasantry, in the neighbourhood, who are said to have come originally from Persia, although they have much the appearance of Hindoos.

Kumbar, the first usurper, was succeeded by his son

Sumbur, the father of the next prince,

Mahomed Khan; who was succeeded by his son,

Abdallah Khan, the father of

Nassir Khan, who ascended the throne after putting to death his brother Hadjee Khan. Nassir Khan performed some important services to Nadir Shah, who rewarded him with the donation of several provinces; and being a man of considerable abilities, greatly extended the Baloochistan dominions, which he left in a comparatively flourishing state, at his death in 1795, to his eldest son, Mahmood Khan, who then ascended the throne. Since that period the territories subject to Kelat have been greatly curtailed by the Ameers of Sinde and other neighbouring princes, the talents of Mahmood Khan being very inferior to those of his father. In conducting affairs he was greatly assisted by his brother, Mustapha Khan, who proved of an active and martial disposition; but since 1810 Baloochistan has been involved in such incessant broils and revolutions, that the semblance of government has also disappeared. In 1811, Mustapha Khan above-mentioned was assassinated by his younger brother, who, in 1812, was killed in battle against the forces of Mahmood Khan, the eldest brother.

In 1815 the territory immediately subject to Mahmood Khan comprised the high hilly country of Sewistan, and the low country of Cutch Gundava and Hurrund Dajil, to the eastward; bounded on the north by the ill-defined province of Khorassan; south by Lus and Sinde; on the west by Mekran: and on the east by Sinde. In 1810 his whole clear revenue was only 350,000 rupees, collected from Hur-

rund Dajil, Cutch Gundava, and the bazar tolls of Kelat. The Khans of Baloochistan acknowledge the paramount authority of the Cabul sovereigns, to whom they are feudatories; but the degree of their submission is in proportion to the talents of the reigning prince, and the political circumstances of the Cabul government. Formerly it was supposed that, upon a grand emergency, that the Baloochistan dominions could produce 25,000 infantry and cavalry; but so large a number has never yet been collected together, nor would it be an easy matter, in so barren a country, without navigable rivers, to subsist them if they were. —(*Pottinger, Christie, Macdonald, &c.*)

Balwunt.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, thirteen miles south from the city of Cuttack. At this place there is a choultry for the accommodation of the Juggernaut pilgrims, having a temple of Narsingh (the man lion) in the centre.

Balumba.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the Gulf of Cutch; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 70° 36′ E.

Bambarah.—The ruins of a city in the province of Mooltan, lying on the west side of the city of Tatta, and conjectured to be those of an ancient city named Brahminabad by Persian authors, who report it to have been the capital of a flourishing Hindoo kingdom in the tenth century. They also name it Mahaura and Manhawar. The site of Bambarah was on a hill covered with trees and bushes, and exhibits in the neighbourhood many tombs of Sindian warriors, who fell in a battle between Gholaum Shah and Meer Ali.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Bameeny (*Vamani*).—An island in the province of Bengal formed by the sediment deposited by the waters of the great Ganges and Brahmaputra, where they unite with the ocean in the Bay of Bengal, under the name of the Megna. In length it may be estimated at twelve miles, by five the average breadth; but its surface is very little raised above the level of the tide, which here runs with frightful strength and rapidity. At Bameeny there is a government establishment for the manufacture of salt, subordinate to the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Bamian.—A city subject to the Afghan sovereigns of Cabul, which, although so far to the west, was subject with the district to the Delhi throne during the reign of the great Emperor Acber, as appears by the following extract from Abul Fazel, A.D. 1582. "In the district of Zohak Bamian is the castle of Zohak, a monument of great antiquity, which is in good condition, while the fortress of Bamian is in ruins. Tooman Zohak Bamian 861,750 dams."

This famous city, the Thebes of the east, is situated in lat. 34° 30′ N., lon. 66° 57′ E., on the road between Cabul and Bahlac, eight days' journey from the latter place. Like Thebes of Egypt it is entirely cut out of an insulated mountain. To the south of it, at the distance of two miles, are the ruins of an ancient city named Ghulguleh, which according to tradition was destroyed at a very early period by the Mahomedans. The city of Bamian consists of a vast number of apartments and recesses cut out of the rock, some of which, on account of their extraordinary appearance, are supposed to have been temples. By Abul Fazel there were reckoned to be 12,000 of these recesses in the district of Bamian. The attention of travellers, however, is principally attracted by two collossal statues, fifty cubits high, which are erect, and adhere to the mountains in niches. At some distance from these two is a smaller one, fifteen cubits high. One of the large statues is supposed to represent a male, and the other a female, and the small one their son. They are all much disfigured, and the legs of the male broken; for the Mahommedans never march that way without firing two or three shots at them, but owing to their want of skill they seldom do

much mischief. From the numerous fragments remaining, it would appear as if there had been many hundred statues, the existence of which, and of the excavations, would indicate that the inhabitants had at one time followed some branch of the Hindoo religion. When Praun Poory, the noted Hindoo ascetic, visited this place between 1770 and 1780, he was struck with the number of statues that still remained, although the place had long been deserted by its inhabitants. In A.D. 1220 it was taken and destroyed by Gengis Khan.—(*Wilfurd, Duncan, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

Baminee River.—A considerable stream, formed by the junction of several others which rise in the mountains of Gundwana. It traverses the province of Cuttack, and uniting with a branch of the Mahanaddy called the Beroopa, proceeds with it to the sea, which it joins near Point Palmiras.

Baminwas.—A small town in the province of Agra, about fifty-eight miles travelling distance from the city of Jeypoor. It covers both slopes of a steep and rocky ridge, insulated from the plain. The interior is meanly built, but it contains several Hindoo temples.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bamoo.—(See Bhanmo.)

Bamori (*or Bamouree.*)—A small village in the province of Delhi, situated on the northern confines of the Bareilly district, forty-one miles travelling distance S. from Almora; lat. ° N., lon. ′ E. It is now the principal thoroughfare between Rohilcund and Kumaon, an excellent road twelve feet wide having been constructed, with great labour and expense, between Bamori and the fortress of Almora. This road in some places is cut out of the solid rock; in others supported by parapet walls winding round the face of a hill. It is carried directly over the crest of the great Goggar mountain, which rises to the height of 7,696 feet above the level of the sea, the road crossing at an elevation of 7,200 feet. The village itself is situated in the great Saul forest, near the base of the Kumaon hills, and close under them, two miles from the village, there is a cleared spot, with a commissariat dépôt for troops and travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bampoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-five miles S.S.E. from the city of Oojein; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.

Bampoora.—A considerable town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Rewa river, 1,344 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The fort of Bampoora has never been finished, but the walls are well built, and within them is a palace (also unfinished) begun by Jeswunt Row Holcar, of whom it contains a statue sculptured in white marble. In 1820 the number of houses was estimated at 4,000, and the city with the pergunnahs attached formed part of the dominions of Mulhar Row Holcar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bambaghur.—A town in the Orissa province, eighty miles N.W. from Cuttack; lat. 21° 3′ N., lon. 85° 2′ E. To the south of this place are some iron mines and forges.

Banass River (*Vanasa.*)—The source of this river is in the province of Ajmeer, but the exact spot has never been ascertained. In passing through that tract it attains to a considerable bulk, and even when pursuing its course from Deesa through the Mehwas, its size is not insignificant; but it afterwards loses itself in the Kakreze, and by the time it reaches Rahdunpoor is reduced from various causes to a small stream. Three miles below Rahdunpoor the bed of the Banass is half a mile broad, but during the dry season not more than twenty yards of this space contains water, the current being two feet and a half deep, and the water of an excellent quality. In this part of its course the banks are nearly on a level with the surrounding country, which is inundated during the rains

to the extent of two miles. Twenty-five miles below Rahdunpoor the Banass is wholly lost in the great salt morass named the Runn.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Banaganapilly.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated at the northern extremity of the Curnoul plain, commencing at the southern range of hills near Cuddapah; lat. 15° 18′ N., lon. 78° 18′ E. This village stands at the foot of a low range of hills where the diamond mines are found. The miners here are content to sift and examine the old rubbish, from a prevailing opinion, common also elsewhere, that the diamond is always growing, and that the chips and small pieces rejected by former searchers, actually increase in size, and in process of time become large diamonds. The matrix of the diamonds produced in the south of India is the sandstone breccia of the clay slate formation, and those found in alluvial soil are produced from the debris of that rock. —(*Heyne, Voysey, &c.*)

Banaul.—A small district or valley in the province of Cashmere, situated among the southern hills. The village thus named stands in lat. 33° 56′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E., forty miles S.E. from the city of Cashmere. Five miles distance to the south-east of Banaul begins a boundary of a division of the Cashmere territory, lying beyond the great circle of mountains. The governors of Cashmere permit the fertile valley of Banaul, ten miles in length, to remain uncultivated, that it may not afford food or shelter to the neighbouring Hindoo states in the kohistan of Lahore, who at some former period penetrated through this tract to the interior passes of Cashmere. The Banaul district is elevated, and looks down on the plains of Cashmere.—(*Foster, &c.*)

Banca.—An island lying off the north-eastern coast of Sumatra, from which it is separated by the straits of Banca. In length it may be estimated at 135 miles by thirty-five the average breadth. Monopin, a high mountain with a peak a few miles north of Mintaow, the capital, is an excellent landmark for the entrance to the straits.

The geological formation of this island is a primary rock, the principal mountains being granite, those of an inferior elevation a red iron-stone; and between these two the tin is found in alluvial deposits, seldom lower than twenty-five feet from the surface. As yet only about 3,400 geographical square miles have been surveyed, the mines now worked being confined to the north-west quarters; but from one extremity to the other, the existence of tin has been ascertained in all the alluvial tracts, and it probably abounds also in the mountains. The ore found is the common oxide of tin, mostly of a reddish brown colour, and it is washed in the numerous mountain streams that distinguish the scenery of Banca. A great majority of the miners are natives of China, and notwithstanding the difference of climate, and the severity of their occupation, they appear to enjoy good health.

Tin in every language of the eastern islands is known by the name of timah, a word presumed to be of Malay origin. Its geographical distribution comprehends Banca, the Malay peninsula and its isles, and Junkceylon, whereas in Europe its range is confined to a very few places. It is so abundant in this island, that in 1813 the British government, by paying an additional price per picul, increased the quantity to 2,083 tons, or about half the whole produce of Cornwall. China and the continent of India are the principal markets for exportation.

The inhabitants of Banca are Malays, Chinese, and indigenes, the last subdivided into mountaineers and men of the sea. The first are few and indolent; the second laborious and active, the third remarkable for laziness and rude simplicity. These live dispersed over large tracts of country in the interior, subsisting

nearly in a state of nature, and averse to European society, and all restraint or habits of regular industry. The men of the sea (Rayads or Orang Laut) appear to be the remains of a peculiar people, who with their families and household gods inhabit small prows along the sheltered bays of the coast, and procure their food by fishing.

Banca lies opposite to the river Palembang in Sumatra, where the nominal sovereign of the island resides, at his capital, named Palembang. In 1813 the island and mines were ceded by the Sultan to the British government, and taken possession of with a view to the suppression of piracy. In 1817 they were made over to the King of the Netherlands. The chief town is named Mintow.—(*Crawfurd, Raffles, Marsden, Thorn, Staunton, Stavorinus, Elmore, &c.*)

BANCA (*Straits of*).—The island of Sumatra forms the western, and that of Banca the eastern side of the straits, in passing through which the Sumatran coast may be approached nearer than the other. The country is covered with wood down to the water's edge, and the shores so low that the sea overflows the land, and washes the trunks of the trees. The depth of water is very irregular, at some parts shoaling in one cast of the lead from twelve to seven fathoms, and in others from seven to four. There are also coral banks so near the surface, as to be easily distinguished by the white colour of the water over them. The straits of Banca should always be entered with a favourable monsoon, according to the destination of the vessel.—(*Staunton, King, &c.*)

BANCA.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by a cluster still smaller lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 1° 50′ N., lon. 125° E. This island abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, jacks, fish, turtle, and rattans, has a harbour at its south end, and is well inhabited. Near Banca is the harbour of Tellusyang, called Talesse by Valentyn, at which are some wild cattle, but no inhabitants. These islands are much frequented by piratical cruizers from Magindanao and Sooloo.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

BANCALLAN.—A town on Madura, the residence of the sultan of the island; lat. 7° 2′ S., lon. 112° 45′ E. This place is large and populous. The fort is close to the palace, and the environs are pleasant, having good roads, interspersed with country-seats and pleasure grounds.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

BANCAPOOR.—This district occupies the southern extremity of the Bejapoor province, and was formerly distinguished by the name of Shahnoor or Savanore. It extends along the north bank of the Wurda and Toombuddra rivers. The principal towns are Shahnoor and Bancapoor.

BANCAPOOR (*or Benkypoor*).—This was formerly a place of importance, and strongly fortified until dismantled by Tippoo during one of his campaigns against the Maharattas. It lies about six miles N.E. from the city of Shahnoor, in the Bejapoor province.

BANCOORAH.—The civil station of the Jungle Mehals, situated on the verge of the hilly tract that forms the western boundary of Bengal, about ninety-eight miles from Calcutta, and in a beautiful healthy country. The town itself is quite of modern construction, and as yet of small dimensions, but unusually open and neat for a Hindoo population. The most remarkable public building is an excellent serai, built at the charge of government for the accommodation of travellers, and exhibiting almost a solitary exception to their niggardly neglect of similar institutions.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BANCOOT.—(*See* FORT VICTORIA.)

BAND.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on a small bund or lake, fifteen miles east of Teary. Lat. 24° 44′ N., lon. 79° 3′ E.

BANDA.—The Banda isles, situated about 120 miles E.S.E. from Amboy-

na, are twelve in number, *viz*. Banda Neira, Goonong Api, Banda Lantoir, Pulo Way, Pulo Run, Roysyngen, Pulo Pinang, Craka, Capella, and Souangy. Banda Neira, lying in lat. 4° 30′ S., lon. 130° E., is the seat of the supreme government of the whole. It has a spacious harbour, but of difficult entrance, with a seven feet rise of tide. Ships anchor under the cannon of two forts, named Belgica and Naussau.

The next island is that of Lantoir, or Banda proper, which is about eight miles in length, and at the eastern extremity five miles in breadth. The third and fourth isles in importance are those of Pulo Way and Pulo Run, and at these four only did the Dutch East-India Company permit the cultivation of the nutmeg-tree. On Rosyngen there is a redoubt, to which state prisoners were formerly banished, and Goonong Api has a volcano constantly vomiting smoke, and often flame. Under the Dutch there were several other islands known by the appellation of the South-Western and South-Eastern islands, whose inhabitants supplied the Dutch colonists with provisions in exchange for piece goods and other articles.

The Banda isles are all high and volcanic. The soil is a rich black mould covered with trees, chiefly nutmegs, of which the Dutch East-India Company were the absolute proprietors, as well as of the slaves who took care of them. The rearing of nutmegs being the grand object, the isles were subdivided into a certain number of plantations, under the management of a mixed breed of Europeans and Indians, either as temporary proprietors or lessees. The nutmeg tree grows to the size of a pear tree, with a leaf like the laurel, and although two out of three turn out barren, it cannot be discovered until the twelfth or fourteenth year, and it dies about the twenty-fourth year. Each tree, while bearing, will on an average produce ten pounds per annum. The total quantity of nutmeg and mace (a membraneous substance that envelopes the nutmeg) produced has never been clearly ascertained.

Besides provisions furnished annually from Batavia by the Dutch, piece goods, cutlery, iron, and other commodities, were imported. The Dutch burghers and Chinese re-export these articles to Aroo, Papua, Ceram, and the south-east islands, and receive in return from Ceram, sago in bread and flour, and sometimes salted deer; from Aroo and the others, pearls, birds'-nests, birds of paradise, tortoiseshell, and from all slaves. The Banda isles were captured by the British in 1796; restored at the peace of Amiens in 1801; re-taken in 1810, and restored in 1817.—(*Stavorinus*, *Asiatic Register*, *&c.*)

Banda.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated about ninety miles west from that fortress, and as the residence of the public functionaries, at present the modern capital of Bundelcund. Lat. 25° 30′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E. This place, which a few years ago was a moderate sized village, is now become a large and bustling town, its prosperity having been greatly accelerated by the gunge or mart, and some other works erected by Mr. Richardson while judge and magistrate. The Banda cotton has obtained of late years in the European market a superiority over the Jaloun.—(*F. Buchanan*, *Guthrie*, *&c.*)

Banda.—A small town, the head of a pergunnah in the province of Gujerat and district of Surat. It is a jungly country, inhabited by Dooblas and Dooreas. The Raja's revenue is about 60,000 rupees, and pays a tribute to the British government of 7,800 rupees.—(*Elphinstone*, *&c.*)

Bandell.—An old Portuguese town in the province of Bengal, district of Hooghly, and immediately adjoining the town of Hooghly. At this place there is a good Roman Catholic church, and also a monastery

Banditti Isle.—A small island

about twenty miles in circumference situated in the straits of Lombhook, but why it received its present evil appellation, in preference to many others similarly situated, does not appear. Lat. 8° 50′ S., lon. 115° 25′ E.

BANDON.—A seaport town belonging to the Siamese, situated on the west side of the gulf of Siam, at the mouth of a river navigable for vessels not drawing more than fourteen feet of water.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

BANDONG.—An inland town of Java situated in a swampy country, on the high road from Buitzenzorg to Cheribon, E S.E. from Batavia. Lat. 6° 45′, lon 107° 35′ E.

BANDOOGUR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, district of Boghela, eighty miles north from Mundlah. Lat. 23° 50′ N , lon. 81° E. In the time of Aurungzebe, Baundhoo or Bhatta was the name of the northern portion of Gundwana, then, although actually independent, annexed by edict to the Mogul province of Allahabad.—(*Jas. Grant, &c.*)

BANDORA.—A village on the island of Salsette, opposite to Mahim, on the island of Bombay, with which it communicates by a regular ferry.

BANGALORE (*Bangalura*).—A large fortified town in the Mysore Raja's territories, seventy miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E. The surface here is an undulating table land, nearly 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but there are no high hills within many miles. The fall to the north of Bangalore, after passing Nundydroog, is very rapid, and the summit of Paughur, which rises from its base, is nearly on a level with the plateau of Bangalore. In the country further west, after passing the range of hills on which Severndroog, Paughur, and other elevated stations are situated, the surface has a sudden descent, and continues low considerably to the west of Seringapatam, where it begins to ascend again, on approaching the western ghauts. In A.D. 1800 the thermometer here never rose higher than 82°, or fell below 56° Fahrenheit. The cypress and vine grow luxuriantly, the apple and peach produce fruit, and strawberries are raised in the sultan's garden.

The fortress of Bangalore is a regular work of great extent, entirely detached from the town, and constructed of the most solid materials. It is surrounded by a ditch of remarkable depth cut in the solid rock, with a spacious glacis, and but for its round bastions and intricate entrances, might pass for a Europen citadel. Tippoo's palace, built of mud, with halls enclosed by high pointed Saracenic arches and painted walls and ceilings, has still a lively appearance, and it has lately been patched in an incongrous style of architecture by the Mysore Raja, being occasionally used for public entertainments. The town or pettah of Bangalore is composed of tolerably well sized houses, some of two stories, but universally built of the red earth of the country, and roofed with tiles. The principal bazar is wide and regular, and ornamented on both sides by rows of cocoa-nut trees. The pettah is enclosed with a double line of fortification, the walls also of red mud, the space between the inner and outer defences being protected by a thick bound hedge of bamboos and jungle. The cantonment stands about two miles from the pettah, and is remarkably extensive and complete, the squares of barracks being on a great scale, and hedged gardens attached to the officer's bungalows. Besides these accommodations for the military, there is a handsome race-stand, an assembly and reading-room, and several well-stocked Europe shops. In 1805 the total population was estimated at 60,000 souls.

The cloths made here being entirely for country use, and never exported to Europe, are made of different sizes to adapt them to the uses of the natives. The Hindoos seldom employ tailors, but wrap round their bodies the web as it comes from the loom.

The silk-weavers make cloth of a very strong fabric of the silk that is imported in a raw state, but which in time may be raised in the country. The introduction of the silk-worm has not yet succeeded in the lower Carnatic, but there is reason to believe the country above the ghauts, having a more temperate climate, will be found more suitable. At the weekly markets cotton is bought up by the poor women of all castes, except the Brahmin, for these never spin, nor do their husbands ever plough the soil. The females of all other castes spin, and at the weekly markets sell the thread to the weavers.

At Bangalore there are many inhabitants of the Mahomedan religion, and owing to the change of government many of them at first suffered great distress. Above the ghauts, that species of leprosy in which the skin becomes white is very common among the natives. The persons troubled with it enjoy in every other respect good health, and their children are like those of other people. The only year used above the ghauts is the chandramanam or lunar year, by which among the Brahmins all religious ceremonies are performed. At Bangalore the christian era of A.D. 1800 corresponded with the year 4893 of the Cali Yug, and 1722 of Salivahanam, which last is in universal use in the south of India. This place was first acquired by the Mysore state in 1687, during the reign of Chick Deo Raj, and was stormed by the army under Lord Cornwallis in 1791. Travelling distance from Seringapatam seventy-four miles; from Madras 215; and from Hyderabad 352 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Wilks, Lord Valentia, Col. Lambton, A. H. Hamilton, &c.*)

BANGUEY.—A small island situated off the northern extremity of Borneo, twenty-three miles in length, eleven the average breadth, on which there is a small fresh-water river and plenty of turtle. Lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 117° 25′ E.

BANIACK (*or Pulo Baniack*).—A small island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, lat. 2° 10′ N. In length it may be estimated at seventeen miles by seven the average breadth. This island is known by a peaked hill resembling a sugar-loaf on the north end of it, and it has a chain of islets to the north east.

BANJARMASSIN.—A town and district on the south-eastern coast of Borneo, lat. 3° S, long 114° 55′ E. The river Banjarmassin has a shallow bar at the entrance, over which a boat, though light, cannot float until after the first quarter of the flood. Ships anchoring in the harbour of Tombanjou and Tombornio near the mouth of the river can be supplied with water, poultry, and fish. Many Chinese reside permanently here and in the neighbourhood, from whence they carry on a considerable trade with the mother country. The imports to Banjarmassin consist of opium, piece goods, coarse cutlery, gunpowder, small cannon, and fire-arms; the exports are pepper, camphor, gold-dust, wax, rattans, birds'-nests, biche de mar, and some spices. The steel procured here has always been reckoned of a superior quality.

In 1706 the East-India Company settled a factory and expensive establishment, but next year were expelled by the natives, instigated, it was supposed, by the Chinese, with considerable slaughter, and a loss of fifty thousand dollars. The Dutch also continued as profitless a settlement here from 1747 to 1810, when it was by agreement abandoned to the Malay sultan by Marechal Daendels, for the sum of 50,000 Spanish dollars. After the conquest of Java, however, the British appear to have claimed a predominance, as Banjarmassin had again become dependent on Java, and was garrisoned by colonials under the British resident. It was restored to the Dutch in 1817, and in 1825 (with Pontianat, Sambas, and Mamoowah) was described as enjoying tranquillity, trade flourishing, the pepper culture reviving, and the newly elected sultan friendly.—(*Bruce, Stavorinus, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

BANKEE.—A town in the province of Cuttack, the capital of a tributary zemindarry thirty miles west from the city of Cuttack. The extreme dimensions of this estate from north to south are thirty miles, and twenty-five from east to west. The produce consists of coarse rice, sugar-cane, cotton, oil, tobacco, and different sorts of grain. The annual tribute paid to government is 4,102; the supposed profit to the zemindar 20,000 rupees.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

BANKOK.—This is an ancient port but modern capital, having been selected for the seat of government by the Chinese king Piatac, after the capture and plunder of Juthia by the Burmese in 1766. Lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 101° 10′ E. It extends along the banks of the Menam river, which is here about a quarter of a mile broad, without including the space on each side occupied by the floating houses. It carries down a large body of water mixed with soft mud, and its depth even close to the banks is from five to ten fathoms; the rate of its current about three miles per hour.

This place is almost entirely built of wood, the king's palaces, the temples, and the houses of a few favoured chiefs being the only edifices of brick or mud: fires are in consequence frequent and destructive. It has scarcely any fortifications, but the bar at the mouth of the river prevents the ascent of large ships The houses rarely extend more than two hundred yards from the river; indeed by far the greater number float on bamboo rafts moored along the banks. Those on shore are built on posts driven into the mud, and raised above high flood and the annual inundation. There are consequently scarcely any roads, or even pathways, a small boat or canoe being the usual locomotive vehicle, the few streets in Bankok being only passable during dry weather. The floating houses are moored in rows of eight, ten or more in depth from the bank. They are of an oblong form, built of boards, and towards the river provided with a covered platform, on which merchandize, fruits, rice, meat, &c. are displayed, composing altogether a sort of floating bazar. At one end they are bound to strong bamboos driven into the river, and every one has a small attendant boat or canoe.

A large proportion of the inhabitants are Chinese, who appear in fact to compose three-fourths of the population, which has been estimated to amount to from 30,000 to 40,000 persons. The most common trades are tinsmiths, blacksmiths, and curriers, all Chinese. The manufacture of tin vessels is very considerable, and deer and buffaloe hides are tanned and prepared for exportation. Nearly all the junks that carry on the trade between the eastern islands and China are built here, the station being selected as well for the convenience of the harbour, as for the extraordinary abundance and cheapness of fine timber, especially teak, supplied by the Siamese forests. The food of the Chinese here is so excessively gross and fat, that it is surprising their stomachs can digest it. Pork is their favourite diet oil in large quantities is swallowed, and the vegetables are brought to table floating in a sea of fat. The food of the native Siamese is principally rice and balachang. Besides the Chinese, the miscellaneous population of Bankok consists of Siamese, native Christians of Siam and Cambodia, Burmese, Peguers, Malays, and natives of Laos.

The chief temple here is of a pyramidical form, terminating in a slender spire about 200 feet high. The interior is a single lofty chamber about fifty feet long, and nearly as much in breadth, paved with stones, and having in the centre numerous small figures of Buddha, intermingled with small bits of looking-glass, scraps of gilt paper, and Chinese paintings. Fabulous legends from Hindoo mythology are delineated on the interior walls of the temples, and in one of them two coarse paintings of French ladies as shepherdesses were seen

suspended by the members of the embassy in 1823. Gilt figures of Buddha are innumerable, made of cast iron, brass, wood or clay, but all of a wonderful uniformity. Some are of enormous size, one in particular thirty feet high, of gilt wood, intended to pass for copper. The Prachadi (called by the Buddhists of Ceylon Dagoba) is a solid building of masonry, without an aperture or hollow of any sort. It is generally built in the neighbourhood of some temple, but is not itself an object of worship. In Bankok there are a few Brahmins, who are supported by the king, and have a small temple of their own.—(*Finlayson, Crawfurd, Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

Bankybazar.—A small town on the east side of the Hooghly river, eighteen miles north from Calcutta; lat 22° 46′ N., lon 38° 28′ E. The Dutch last century had a factory here, from which they were expelled by Aliverdi Khan; of both factory and town hardly a vestige is now to be seen. Within a short distance from hence are the remains of a once strong and extensive fortress named Simookghur, of which a plan is given by Major Rennell in the Bengal Atlas. (*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bansbarea.—A town in the Bengal province, situated on the east bank of the Hooghly, three miles and a half N N.W. from the town of Hooghly. Including two adjoining villages it forms a considerable town. To the north are some ruins of Mahomedan buildings of stone, a material very rarely met with in this part of India.—(*Fullarton, &c*)

Banswara.—The capital of a small independent native state in the province of Gujerat, district of Bagur. Lat. 23° 31′ N., lon. 74° 32′ E. The town of Banswara is a handsome place for this quarter of India, and the walls include a large circuit, but a good deal of the space is occupied by gardens. There are also some handsome temples, and a tolerable bazar, in which a considerable number of Mahomedans are seen. At some distance is a pool of water, with some ruinous temples on it, and a stately flight of steps overhung by palms, peepuls, and tamarind-trees; and beyond it on the crown of a woody hill, the towers of a large castle. This formerly was the palace of Banswara. The territories attached are divided into seven districts, yielding in 1820 an annual revenue of about 2,07,860 rupees, of which amount 1,01,625 go to the treasury, 96,547 to the subordinate Rajpoot chieftains, and 9,694 rupees to religious mendicants. In 1820 there were one thousand families of Gujerat Brahmins in Banswara. In 1824 the gross revenue was expected to reach five lacks.

This principality is mentioned by Abul Fazel, and was formerly possessed by a branch of the Odeypoor Rajpoots, but the two families have been long separated. The present Rawul (of the Doongurpoor family), or prince of Banswara, named Bhowanny Singh, in 1820 had thirty-two dependent Rajpoot chiefs, who kept their quotas of fighting men in readiness for the service of the state, amounting to 179 horse and 660 foot, besides 200 of the Rawul's own troops. His authority is paramount throughout the whole state, as he alone has authority to inflict capital punishment; but he is himself tributary to the British government. In the immediate vicinity of Banswara the lands are irrigated from tanks. In the wilder districts the Bheels, who follow no regular plan of agriculture, compose the bulk of the inhabitants. When Malwa and the neighbouring provinces fell into their late state of anarchy, the Banswara principality was reduced to a condition of extreme misery; from which it was relieved by the British government, to which it pays a small tribute for protection. In 1824 the Raja of Banswara was twenty-four years of age, and had been on the throne five years.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bantam (*Bantan*).—A town in

Java, once the capital of a district of the same name, containing 3,428 square miles, situated at the western extremity of the island; lat. 6° S., lon. 106° 13′ E., forty-seven miles west from Batavia. This once flourishing city has now nothing to exhibit but ruins, the fortifications, both native and European, as well as the sultan's palace, having been long levelled with the ground. The bay of Bantam also, which in early times was the principal rendezvous of foreign shipping, is so choked up with daily accessions of new earth washed down from the mountains and coral shoals, that it is now inaccessible. Placed on a low swampy beach, surrounded by jungle, and intersected by stagnant water, its climate has always been signally destructive to European constitutions, and even the natives suffer extremely from the marsh fever.

In A.D. 1674 the King of Bantam equipped ships on his own account, and sent them with produce to the coast of India, and even into the Persian Gulf; but Bantam had lost all its importance long before the British conquest of Java. The succession to the throne was generally dispensed by the Dutch, but until the beginning of the present century the administration of the police and collection of the port duties was confided to the chief. In 1808, in consequence of an insurrection, the reigning prince was banished to Amboyna, and a relative placed on the throne; but disturbances not ceasing, a new sultan was installed in the high country, while the Dutch functionaries assumed the direct management of the low. Notwithstanding these precautions, a rebellion under the Pangeran Ahmed continued to agitate the interior until the arrival of the British army in 1811, when it became necessary to make a general settlement of the district under European control.

In 1813 the sultan voluntarily made over all his rights to the British government in consideration of an annual pension of 10,000 dollars. An accurate survey of the province was then completed, and a settlement of the land revenue effected with each individual cultivating on the ryotwar system, and in this condition it was delivered over to the functionaries delegated by his majesty the King of the Netherlands.

When the Portuguese first visited Java, in A.D. 1511, they found a Hindoo kingdom in Bantam, which subsequently declined on the arrival and establishment of the Mahomedan sultan some time in the sixteenth century, certainly prior to the settlement of the Dutch at Batavia in 1620. In 1690 the Danes and English were expelled from Bantam. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the province of Bantam contained 231,604 persons, of whom 628 were Chinese, all noted cock-fighters. The Java fighting-cocks are of a very large breed; the fowl which we improperly call the Bantam cock is not found in Java, except as a curiosity. Since the Dutch reassumed the government in 1817 they have abandoned Bantam, the native capital, and retired to a more elevated station seven miles inland, named Sirang or Ceram.—(*Raffles, Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Banyuwangy.—A town and district in the island of Java, situated at the eastern extremity on the straits of Bally, 728 miles travelling distance from Batavia, lat 8° 7′ S., lon. 114° 15′ E The town is a military post of some consequence, being necessary to restrain the depredations of the pirates who infest the neighbouring seas and straits. The town is populous, the country well cultivated, and reputed healthy. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the division of Banyuwangy (1,274 square miles) contained 8,873 inhabitants, of which number 319 were Chinese. This district contains the great volcanic mountain named Goonong mar-api, which is said to be of such a height that near the summit water freezes. All the volcanoes of Java afford sulphur, but

the most abundant supply is obtained from hence, and in such a state of purity, as to require no further preparation. The country in its immediate vicinity is uninhabited.—(*Crawford, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

Bar.—A town of considerable trade and great extent in the province of Bahar, but of mean appearance. It stands on the south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 28′, lon. 85° 46′ E. Including Masurgunge, it is estimated to contain 5,000 houses.

Bara.—A town in the province of Ajmeer belonging to the Raja of Kolah, which in 1820 contained 2,000 houses.

Barabutty (*Barabati*).—An ancient fortress in the province of Orissa, situated about a mile from the town of Cuttack, and supposed to have been built in the fourteenth century. Its square sloping towers and bastions, and general style, bespeak a Hindoo origin. The Mahomedans or Maharattas subsequently added a round bastion and some other works. The fort has double walls of stone, which enclose a rectangular area of 2,150 feet by 1,800 feet. A noble ditch faced with masonry surrounds the whole, measuring in the broadest part 220 feet across. From the centre rises a huge square cavalier supporting a flag-staff, which, combined with the loftiness of the battlements towards the river, give the whole an imposing castellated appearance when viewed from the opposite side of the Mahanuddy. No traces of the famous palace of Raja Mukund Deo, nine stories high as narrated by Abul Fazel, are now to be found.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

Barahat.—A town in northern Hindostan, the modern capital of the Gurwal Raja, forty-eight miles N.N.W. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 45′ N., lon. 78° 22′ E. It stands on the north-west bank of the Ganges, and in 1815 was a most wretched place, consisting of only five or six houses, surrounded with filth, and almost buried in a jungle of nettles, thorns, and other rank weeds. At a bend of the river below Barahat there is a jhoola or hanging bridge of ropes, over which the direct road leads to Serinagur. It is said at some former period to have been in a more flourishing condition, and it is probable that since the Nepaulese war, and the political vicissitudes which raised it to the rank of a metropolis, its circumstances have improved.—(*James Fraser, &c.*)

Baraitche.—A district in the province of Oude, extending along the north side of the Goggra river, and separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a lofty range of hills. A section of this country was ceded to the British government in 1800; but the greater proportion remains with the reserved territories of the nabob of Oude. The northern tracts towards the hills are covered with primeval forests, never visited by the axe; but towards the Goggra the country is open, fertile, and tolerably well cultivated. The principal rivers are the Goggra and Rapty, and the chief towns Baraitche and Bulram. Many of the old Patan race are found scattered over this district, and one of their chiefs still dignified with a title, as Khan of Baraitche.

Baraitche.—A town in the province of Oude, sixty-four miles north-east from Lucknow; lat. 27° 33′ N., lon. 81° 30′ E. In 1582 Abul Fazel describes it as a large city delighfully situated on the river side where Sultan Massaood and Rejib Sillar were buried and held in high estimation.

Barce.—A town belonging to the Rana of Dholpoor in the province of Agra, forty-two miles S.S.W. from Agra; lat. 26° 42′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E. The streets are narrow, but many of the houses, built of red stone, are two stories high, and have a comfortable appearance. It is chiefly inhabited by Patans, and contains several handsome Mahomedan tombs. —(*Broughton, &c.*)

Barcelore.—A town on the sea-

coast of the Canara province, fifty-five miles north by west from Mangalore; lat. 13° 37′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. By some this place has been conjectured, probably on account of its name, to have been the port Barace of the ancients.

BAREILY (*Barah.*).—A large district in the Delhi province, situated principally between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Kumaon hills; on the south by the Oude reserved territories, and the districts of Furruckabad and Alighur; on the east it has the Nabob's reserved territories, and on the west Moradabad, Alighur, and Furruckabad. When the institutes of Acber were compiled by Abul Fazel in 1582, it was comprehended in the circar of Budayoon, and described under that name; but the original appellation appears to have been Kuthair before the Rohilla conquest, subsequent to which it was incorporated with the province of Rohilcund.

The surface of the Bareily district is in general level, and plentifully watered by many small rivers, besides the Ganges bounding it to the west. To the north of Rampoor the Kosila river is navigable during the rains, and serves to float down large timber. In the neighbourhood of Acberabad the country is well cultivated, and cloth of a good quality is there manufactured. Around Cossipoor is moderately cultivated with sugar-canes and grain; but advancing towards Chilkiya much jungle is passed. Chilkiya is a considerable mart, to which the natives of the Kumaon hills, while still under the Gorkha tyranny, used to resort to exchange their goods for the produce of the plains. In 1803 the chief supplies brought from below were chintzes, gudjoes, salt, coarse sugar, cotton goods, coarse cutlery, cheap trinkets, coral, beads, and slave girls. The goods from above at that period were mostly transported on goats, by which mode they were conveyed from very great distances, even from Tibet. A kind of salt, called kurrah salt, was there extracted during the nitre-making process, and large quantities exported.

After the conquest of Rohilcund by the British troops for Shuja ud Dowlah in 1774, Bareily declined rapidly, from misgovernment; and extensive wastes, formerly under cultivation, were every where to be seen. In 1801 it was received in cession from the Nabob of Oude, and regularly partitioned into revenue and judicial subdivisions; since which its prosperity has progressively increased In 1808 the jumma, or land assessment, yielded only 14,92,640 rupees; in 1813 the district of Bareily was stated to contain 4,458,380 cucha begas of land in cultivation, assessed with a jumma of 22,66,280 rupees, which was realized, being an average of about half a rupee per bega. It also contained 3,362,022 begahs fit for cultivation, but not in actual tillage, and 3,558,899 entirely waste. The jumma of 1813, for Bareily and Shahjehanpoor, amounted to about thirty-three lacks of rupees, and was collected from more than 1,200 landholders and renters. In summer, notwithstanding its northern latitude, the heat of this region is intense, but during the winter months, when the winds blow from the snowy mountains, the thermometer falls below 30°, and water freezes in the tents. There is nothing peculiar in the vegetable productions, except that Bareily is noted for a species of rice of excellent flavour named the basmati (pregnant with perfume), which is greatly superior to the finest sort of what is called Patna rice. The common hackery or cart in use throughout the Bareily district, and in most parts of Rohilcund, is a much larger and more commodious vehicle than that of Bengal, and capable of transporting a heavy load; but the roads and bridges here are better than in most parts of the Company's provinces.

The tribe of Banjaries (carriers and bullock drivers) are particularly

numerous in this district, having been estimated at 14,000. They are all converts from Hindooism to the Mahomedan faith, and boast of being descended from some of the most noble Rajpoot tribes, priding themselves on the warlike exploits of their Hindoo ancestors. Many of them repeat from memory long traditional poems, recording their martial deeds prior to the first Mahomedan invasion, or above eight centuries back. Besides carrying merchandize, the Banjaries find employment in cultivating lands and winnowing rice by contract with the neighbouring farmers.

The district of Bareily, including Shahjehanpoor, contains several large and populous towns, the chief of which are the two capitals. Pillibeet, Chandowsy, and Budayoon are also large towns, and the whole territory formerly swarmed with a race of warlike Mahomedans, ready to join any leader. Some thousands of this description served under Holcar, Jeswunt Row, and many with their countryman Ameer Khan. They were formerly disaffected to the British government, not because it was unjust or oppressive, but because there was no employment for them, and they were left inactive, without distinction or even subsistence. This turbulent race has gradually disappeared, having either sought employment elsewhere, or been gradually lost in the great mass of the population; at least crimes of a violent or heinous nature are not now more frequent in Bareily than elsewhere. The Rohillahs or Patans (for they go by both names) of this district are a tall and handsome race, and when compared with their more southern neighbours, are white and well-featured. There are but few Hindoo temples, and the two sects are probably on an equality in point of number; but classification or enumeration of the inhabitants has never taken place.—(*Deane, Gott, the Marquis of Hastings, Guthrie, Tennant, Sir H. Strachey, 5th Report, Fullarton, Glyn, &c.*)

BAREILY.—A large town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the above district, situated on the banks of the united streams of the Joosh and Sunkra, about forty-two miles N.W. from the Ganges; lat. 28° 23′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E. The site of Bareily is elevated and pleasant, but the British civil station and cantonments are to the south of the town. The principal street or bazar is nearly two miles long, and tolerably well built; consisting, however, almost entirely of booths only one story high. One mosque, from its style of architecture and high position, has a striking appearance, and there are several other tolerable buildings of the same class. The old fort, situated at the western extremity of the main street, is crumbling to ruin, but after the insurrection of 1816, government judged it advisable to erect a small regular citadel on the plain to the south of the town, for the eventual protection of the European inhabitants should any similar commotion again occur. It is of a quadrangular form, has a good ditch, and two bastions projecting from opposite angles, an arrangement which gives the whole rather an odd appearance; but it is quite of sufficient strength for the object contemplated.

The lands in the vicinity of Bareily are not more elevated than eight feet above the Ramgunga, while the mountain streams by which the district is intersected lessen the expense and labour of cultivation, and by their annual inundations fertilize the soil. In A.D. 1822 the number of brick and mud houses and huts was 12,263; shops of ditto 1,663; total 13,926. The population then consisted of

Hindoos	40,205
Mahomedans	25,585
	65,790
Add Christians	5
Total population	65,795

The industry of the Mahomedans of Bareily is mostly confined to ma-

nufactures having relation to war, such as sword cutlery, bow and arrow making, saddlery, farriery, elephant, camel, or bullock-driving, horse-dealing, &c.; or to certain fine arts, inventions, and luxuries, probably imported by their forefathers from Persia and Arabia, such as the manufacture of fine carpets, embroidery, hookas, book-binding, and the trades of tobacco and beer dealers, engravers, turners, &c.; or, lastly, to trades which the Hindoos are prevented from exercising by religious obstacles, such as shoemakers, curriers, butchers, bakers, tailors, water-carriers, and milk dealers. Besides, Bareily is noted for the manufacture of brazen water-pots, and a particular description of European furniture, brilliantly varnished, black, and ornamented with a sort of yellow pigment, which presents so exact an imitation of gilding as scarcely to be distinguished on the closest inspection, and from hence many of the stations in the upper provinces are supplied with many household articles, both convenient and beautiful.

At present the inhabitants of the upper provinces, both Hindoos and Mahomedans, expend the greater part of their savings in ornaments, wearing much more silver and gold on their persons, and burying less in the ground, being now secure from robbers, and not, as formerly, exposed to the rapacity of native officers. The investment of money in ornaments and jewellery, in proportion to its amount, is probably much greater in the upper than the lower provinces of India, the wealthy classes in the latter preferring the government funds and other securities. Bareily having been the capital of a Mahomedan state, cows and oxen have been slaughtered here from time immemorial; at present the Hindoos are constantly petitioning and protesting against the perpetration of such sacrilege.

Bareily was the capital of Hafez Rehmut, a Rohillah chief, slain at the battle of Cutterah, and here he lies interred. In 1774 it was added along with the district to the dominions of Shujah ud Dowlah, then Nabob of Oude; and in 1801 transferred to the British, when it was made the head-quarters of a civil establishment and court of circuit, to which nine other districts are subordinate. In 1816 an alarming insurrection broke out here, which originated in an attempt to impose a small tax for the support of the police, and which was not suppressed without considerable difficulty and bloodshed. Travelling distance from Delhi, 142 miles; from Calcutta by Moorshedabad, 910; by Birbhoom, 805; and from Lucknow, 156 miles.—(*Fullarton, Glyn, Ker, Ross, Hardwick, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

Bariat (*or Birat*).—A fortified peak in northern Hindostan, between the rivers Jumna and Tonse, 6,508 feet above Saharunpoor, which is visible from it; lat. 30° 35′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E. Invalids from the plains, requiring a cold climate, would find it here; for the redoubt during the winter is almost buried in snow, which remains in shady places until April.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Barnagore (*Varanagara*). — A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river, about three miles above Calcutta. It was originally a Portuguese settlement, but afterwards came into the possession of the Dutch, and by the earlier British authorities is described as being the Paphos of Calcutta.

Baroad.—A small walled town in the province of Delhi, situated within the Begum Sumroo's territories.

Baroda.—The capital of a Maharatta chieftain, known by the family name of Guicowar (Gaikevad), who divides with the British government the largest and finest portion of Gujerat, his portion (in 1818, about 12,000 square miles), lying mostly in the northern quarter; lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E.

This place is mentioned by Abul Fazel, and in Aurungzebe's reign was

a large and wealthy town; nor does it appear to have since undergone the great vicissitudes to which all the ancient capitals of India have been subjected. In 1780 (for we have no more recent description) the fortifications consisted of slight walls, with towers at irregular distances, and several double gates. The town is intersected by two spacious streets, dividing it into four equal parts, and crossing at the market-place. The ruins of some handsome Mogul buildings are still to be seen, but the Maharatta structures are mean and contemptible. Near the city there is a stone bridge over the river Viswamitra, which is remarkable as being the only one in Gujerat, where the streams are usually crossed in ferry boats, or on a light platform, floated by empty earthen pots. In the environs are several magnificent wells, with steps down to the bottom. In 1818 the total population of the city was estimated at 100,000 persons.

The Baroda district, though still labouring under all the defects of a native system, and notoriously oppressed for the last ten years, is rich, well cultivated, and in many places enclosed and adorned with hedges of mangoe and tamarind trees; in fact, the appearance of the country villages and inhabitants surpasses any of the British pergunnahs in its neighbourhood. Perhaps this may be attributed to some prior and permanent good government, but when the history of the Guicowar family is recollected, it would be difficult to say at what period that state of good government could have existed. Tranquillity and the vicinity of a capital may have assisted; but be the cause what it may, the Baroda division in 1821 was decidedly one of the most flourishing tracts in Hindostan. It is remarkable, that the Guicowar territories south of Broach, although similarly farmed and managed, were at that same date oppressed and impoverished.

The wilder tracts of the Guicowar's territories (as well as those with which they are intermixed) are mostly occupied by Bheels; the other and more sedentary inhabitants are Mahomedans, Hindoo Banyans, and Rajpoots of a spurious description, chiefly occupied in the cultivation of the soil (there are not many Mahomedans, except about Baroda), and lastly, Coolies, who form more than half of the whole, and by some conjectured to be the aborigines of Gujerat. This claim, however, may be disputed by the Bheels, if they be not the same people in different stages of civilization. They themselves pretend to be descended from the Rajpoots; but this pretension is constantly asserted by the wild and martial tribes all over India. The Coolies here are acknowledged by the Hindoos as their kindred, while the Bheels have rejected, and they occasionally intermarry with the Rajpoots.

At present the chief ostensible employment of the Coolies is agriculture, and when well-treated and kept under, they are punctual in their payments, and not bad tenants. They live, however, under their own thakoors and chiefs, whose authority alone they willingly acknowledge; and pay little respect to the laws, unless they happen to coincide with their interests. Until quite recently, they have been one of the most turbulent and predatory tribes in India, and with the Bheels were for a long time the incessant disturbers of Gujerat. The courts of justice and dwelling-houses of the European functionaries are still placed within the walls of towns, to escape the desperate attacks to which they were liable; and the magistrates have constantly large bodies of armed men in their employ, and even the regular infantry and European cavalry are frequently called out to repress these Coolies, who are hardy men, and in their plundering excursions frequently display a most desperate courage. Their usual dress is a petticoat round the waist, like that of the Bheels, and a cotton cloth wrapped round their head and shoulders, to which, in cold weather, they add a quilted kirtle or lebada, over

which they wear a shirt of mail, with vaunt bearers and gauntlets; and never consider themselves properly accoutred without a sword, buckler, and bow and arrows, to which horsemen add a long spear and a battle-axe. The cotton lebada is generally stained and iron-moulded by the shirt of mail; and such tokens of their martial occupations being reckoned honourable, the young warriors used to counterfeit them with charcoal and oil; in other respects, they are fond of finery. In their marauding expeditions they are very secret, collecting at night under some popular chief, by the circulation of a token passed from one to the other; and when any of the party are slain, the parents are only informed of it by finding some sprigs of the peepul tree scattered in a particular manner before the doors. In fact, even now (1824) their turbulence continues such, that scarcely a year elapses without some sieges of Cooly forts and fastnesses.

The rise of the Guicowar's power was almost contemporaneous with that of the Peshwa in the Deccan. Pillajee Guicowar was patel, or managing proprietor of a village, who, after many struggles and intrigues, established his own power by the same artifices that had been practised by his superior, the Peshwa, towards the pageant Raja of Satarah His son Damajee Guicowar succeeded in A.D. 1747, and reigned until 1768; Futteh Singh Guicowar, until 1789; Manajee Guicowar, until 1792, Govind Row, until 1800; Anund Row Guicowar, until 1819, when he was succeeded by his brother, Syjee Row Guicowar, who had previously acted as regent.

The Guicowar dynasty was first noticed in the political transactions of the British nation about 1782; by the treaty of Bassein in 1802 the intercourse became more frequent, as the British government then undertook to arbitrate and adjust all differences between the Guicowar and Peshwa; cessions of territory to the value of eleven lacks of rupees were received and a subsidiary force of 3,000 troops furnished. Subsequent events produced a still more intimate union between the two states, the Guicowar's affairs being involved in such confusion, and the debt accumulating so rapidly, as to threaten the absorption of the whole revenue. Colonel Alexander Walker was in consequence deputed to Baroda to endeavour to extricate the Guicowar from his embarrassments, and to restore order to his finances. This he so effectually accomplished, that after providing for every branch of the family, adjusting the Peshwa's peniary claims, paying the tumultuary troops, and easing the revenue assessments, the total debt in 1816 amounted to only fifty-five lacks of rupees. This incumbrance has probably been since wholly liquidated; at least Anund Row Guicowar, when he died in 1819, was reported to have left a treasure in money and jewels exceeding one crore of rupees.

In 1815, in consequence of the existing confusion, the Bombay government endeavoured to effect an alteration in the mode of administering justice throughout the Guicowar's dominions, without introducing too great a change in the judicial system of the country. Punchaits, or arbitration by a jury of five, first occurred; but this method of settling disputes, however beautiful in theory, is evidently adapted for a more primitive state of society than exists in Gujerat, where the employment of the people are diversified, their habits industrious yet licentious, and where rights had not previously been decided by any written law, but by the innumerable intricacies of local usage. Judicial establishments with positive powers appearing necessary, both to regulate and assist the punchaits, a new court was created to take cognizance both of civil and criminal cases, an arrangement deemed eligible to withdraw the sovereign from the direct administration of criminal justice. The judges, however, soon became corrupt, partly owing to the inadequacies of their salaries; at the

same time it may be doubted whether any salary could entirely eradicate this inherent defect of the native character, while the sovereign himself openly practises the most undisguised peculation. The reigning Guicowar in 1824 was said to be a man of talents, but so desperately fond of money that he used to lend it to himself.—(*Public MS. Documents, Walker, Carnac, Elphinstone, the Marquis Wellesley, &c.*)

Baroo (*or Barye*).—A small town in the province of Gundwana, near the hills on which Chowraghur is built, from which it is distant S.S.E. about thirteen miles; lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 78′ 50° E. In 1820, it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to the Nagpoor Raja.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Barooly Ghaut.—A pass through the hills which bound the Berar province on the north, and through which there is an ascent to a table land. The source of the Wurda river lies two miles from hence.

Baroos.—A town on the west coast of Sumatra, the inhabitants of which have benzoin and gold, and procure camphor from the interior. The imports are the same as specified under the article Sinkel; to which may be added white beads, pulicat handkerchiefs, chintzes with large flowers and grounds, white dungaree, salt, rice, ghee, oil, a few metal watches, and gilt hilted swords. —(*Elmore, &c.*)

Barrabuttee.—A fortress in the province of Orissa, about a mile from the city of Cuttack. Lat. 20° 27′ N., lon. 86° 6′ E. This fortress is of a rectangular form, the ramparts next the river being double the height of the other sides of the quadrangle. It has no glacis, and the walls are going fast to decay, but it is surrounded by a ditch 130 feet wide and twenty deep, filled from the Mahanuddy, and inhabited by a numerous and ancient stock of alligators. Within are an old mosque, a barrack, magazines, and the house of the conductor of ordnance, who in 1820 was the only European resident. It was stormed in 1803 by a British detachment from Bengal, and captured with little loss.—(*Public Journals, Fullarton, Leckie, Upton, &c.*)

Barrackpoor.—A military cantonment in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the river Hooghly, about sixteen miles above Calcutta, where the sepoy battalions composing the presidency division have their quarters. Here are the unfinished arches of a house begun by the Marquis Wellesley, but discontinued by orders from the Court of Directors. Horse races are run here during the cold season. This place may be described as a large military village inhabited by soldiers, with bungalows for the European officers and other Europeans, who are attracted here by the salubrity of the air, the vicinity of the Governor General's residence, and the beauty and convenience of the river.

Barragurry.—A town in Northern Hindostan belonging to the Nepaulese, forty-five miles S.S.E. from Catmandoo; lat 27° 5′ N., lon. 85° 55′ E. The situation of this place is so unhealthy that Capt. Kinloch's detachment suffered greatly by their stay here, during the attempt to penetrate into Nepaul A.D. 1769. In 1792, when General Kirkpatrick went to Catmandoo, it was the residence of the Gorkha governor of the western Teriani.—(*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Barramahal.—A principal subdivision of the Salem province under the Madras presidency, of which it occupies the northern extremity, consisting properly of the following twelve places, which are all within the Hindoo geographical division of Dravida, a tract bounded on the west by the ghauts. These cantons are Krishnagiri, Jacadeo, Varina Ghada, Bunjunga Ghada, Tripatura, Veniambady, Ghangana Ghada, Sudarshana Ghada, and Tutucallu. Although not so elevated, the Barramahal is on the whole a wilder and more mountainous region

than the Mysore, and was once studded with formidable hill forts. After the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, several important sections of upper Carnata were annexed, and all the poligars restored to their estates, and put on a similar footing with the zemindars of Bengal. They pay a fixed rent or tribute for their lands, but have no jurisdiction over the inhabitants. The property in the soil is mostly vested in the sovereign, except in the polyams and a few small free estates.

In the annexed districts the rice cultivation is not important, dry seeds, kitchen-gardens, and plantations of cocoa-nuts and palms, being the principal articles cultivated. The manufactures are coarse and only suited for the lower classes. When a rich man undertakes to construct a reservoir at his own expense for the irrigation of land, he is allowed to hold in free estate, and by hereditary right, one-fourth of the land so watered, but he is also bound to keep his reservoir in repair; and experience proves that tanks of this description are notoriously kept in better condition than those supported by government. The peasantry assert that they can compel the holder to perform his duty, but that the sovereign has no master; every encouragement should therefore be given to induce rich natives to invest their money in works of such utility. The Barramahal was ceded to the British government by the treaty of Seringapatam in A.D. 1792, and it was then in a most miserable state; but the good management of Colonel Alexander Read in the course of five years more than doubled the revenue, while the rents were diminished in proportion. The villages, however, are evidently inferior in neatness, cleanness, and comfort to those of the Mysore, or of upper Coimbatoor, and even to many in the Carnatic. The inhabitants have in general a miserable appearance, and beggars are unusually numerous. Never having been subdued by Mahomedans until the inroads of the Cuddapah Nabobs, it still contains a very great proportion, perhaps nineteen-twentieths, of genuine Hindoo inhabitants.—(*F. Buchanan, Sydenham, Sir Thomas Munro, 5th Report, &c.*)

Barrambad.—A village belonging to the Bhurtpore Raja in the province of Agra, near to Biana, and remarkable for the ruins of sepulchres, pavilions, bowlies, and other Mahomedan structures, all formed of the red sand stone of the country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Barreah.—The capital of a small independent principality in the province of Gujerat, eighty miles E.N.E. from Cambay, lat. 22° 44′ N., lon. 74′ E. This town stands in a valley near the river Pannah, in a narrow spot just sufficient to contain the houses, which are neat and many built of brick, between the river and the hill. The extensive wilds of Barreah comprise almost the whole space from Godra to Dohud, a distance of almost forty miles, of which scarcely a single spot is cultivated, the only inhabitants being a few wandering and predatory Bheels. Although this great jungle is tolerably open in most places, so as to offer little impediment to light troops, yet it would be almost impervious to baggage and heavy guns.

This principality may be described as one of the few independent petty states now existing in Hindostan, being not only exempted from the payment of any established tribute, but claiming a chout from all the neighbouring districts, of which it is very tenacious. These chouts, with certain moderate duties on trade, compose nearly the whole of the Raja's revenues, which in 1819 amounted to about 57,000 rupees.—(*Burr, &c.*)

Barren Isle.—An island and volcano about 1,800 feet high, in the Bay of Bengal, situated in lat. 12° 15′ N., and fifteen leagues east of the northernmost Andaman. The eruptions are very violent, stones of the weight of three or four tons being sometimes discharged. When visit-

ed in 1822, the high cone continued to send forth volumes of white flame, and the sea close to it was almost boiling. The more distant parts of the island are thinly covered with withered shrubs and blasted trees.—(*Col. Colebrooke, &c.*)

Barripoor.—A town in the province of Bengal, about sixteen miles S.E. from Calcutta, formerly the residence of the salt agent for the Twenty-four pergunnahs.

Barwah.—A village in the province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund, ten miles S.S.E. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E.

In 1790 the Hindoo soubahdar of this district was an uncommonly accomplished person, and had acquired a considerable knowledge of European sciences. At the advanced age of sixty he had formed the project of studying the English language, in order to comprehend the Encyclopedia Britannica, of which he had acquired a copy. Such, however, is the inconsistency of human nature, and the strength with which Hindoo prejudices adhere, that about five years afterwards, having been seized with some complaint which he considered incurable, he repaired to Benares and there drowned himself in the Ganges.—(*Hunter, &c.*)

Barwallah.—A large brick town to the north of Hansi, in the province of Delhi, given up to Saheb Sing, the Raja of Pattiallah.

Barwarrah.—A mud fort with round bastions and a ditch, in the province of Ajmeer, ten miles west of Rantampoor; lat. 26° 3′ N., lon. 75° 3′ E.

Bary (*Bari*).—A town in the Oude territories, thirty miles north from Lucknow; lat. 27° 15′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.

Bashee Isles.—A cluster of small rocky islands lying due north of Luzon, the great Philippine between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude. These islands, situated between the Philippines and Formosa, are five in number, besides four small rocky islets.—Dampier gave the following names to the five largest, *viz.* Grafton Isle, Monmouth Isle, Groat Isle, Orange Isle, and Bashee Isle. They are inhabited by a race of strong athletic men. Grafton Isle is about thirteen leagues in circumference, and has good anchorage on the west side. It produces fine yams, sugar-cane, taro, plantains, and vegetables, besides hogs and goats in plenty. Iron is the favourite medium of exchange, but money is now also understood. The water is very fine and in great abundance close to the beach.

The Spaniards took possession of the Bashee islands in 1783 in order to procure gold, which is washed down by the torrents in considerable quantities, and is worked by the natives into a thick wire, which they wear as an ornament. They are an inoffensive race of people, whose chief delight consists in drinking a liquor named bashee, distilled from rice and sugar-cane, after which they engage in dancing with every mark of satisfaction and gratification. The Spanish governor resides on Grafton Island, with about 100 soldiers, several officers, a few priests, and some cannon.

These islands were visited by Dampier, who gives a favourable account both of the civility of the inhabitants and the abundance of hogs; they were afterwards seen by Byron and Wallis, who passed without landing.—(*Meares, King, &c.*)

Basouda (*or Gunge Basouda*).—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on a river that runs into the Betwah, twenty-five miles north from Bhilsah; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 78° E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, and contained 2,000 houses.

Basouda.—A town in the province of Malwa, with a strong ghurry on the top of a hill in the vicinity, sixteen miles S.W. from Ratghur; lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 78° 23′ E. In 1820 it contained 500 houses.

BASSEELAN.—An island lying off the south-western extremity of Magindanao, and surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by six the average breadth. In the centre there is a range of mountains, but it is low towards the coast, and destitute of good harbours. Grain is the chief production, which the soil yields plentifully; cowries are also abundant. The population is scanty, and the sovereignty is claimed by the Sooloos.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, &c.*)

BASSEIN (*Bassin*).—A seaport town in the province of Aurungabad, separated from Salsette by a narrow strait, and situated about twenty-seven miles north from the fort of Bombay; lat. 19° 20′ N., lon. 72° 56′ E. The surrounding country here presents an improved state of cultivation, notwithstanding it has been so many years under a Maharatta government, and long exhibited a striking contrast to the desolation that prevailed in the British island of Salsette. Many of the cultivators are Roman Catholic Christians. The teak forests that supply the marine yard at Bombay lie along the western side of the ghaut mountains, to the north and north-east of Bassein, the numerous mountain streams afford ing the means of water-carriage.

The Portuguese obtained possession of Bassein by treaty with the Sultan of Cambay, so early as 1531, and with them it continued until captured by the Maharattas in 1750, having been more than two centuries in their undisturbed possession. It was taken from the last-mentioned race by General Goddard's army, but restored at the peace of Salbye; and here, on the 31st Dec. 1802, was signed the celebrated treaty between the Peshwa and the British government, which annihilated the Maharattas as a federal empire. In 1824 this was a considerable place, and surrounded by a regular fortification of ramparts and bastions, but without a glacis, which from the marshy state of the surrounding country is not much wanted. There was then a small garrison stationed in one of the gates, under an English conductor of ordnance, and the place was kept locked up, but within at the above date it was completely uninhabited, containing nothing but a pagoda in good repair, and a melancholy display of ruined houses and churches. Of the latter there were no fewer than seven, some of considerable size, but all of mean architecture, although they are striking from the lofty proportions usual in Roman Catholic places of worship, and from the singularity of Christian and European ruins in India.—(*Malcolm, Rennell, Bruce, Malet, &c.*)

BASSEEN (*or Palhein*).—A town and district in the dominions of Ava, province of Pegu, the first situated about 102 miles west from Rangoon; lat. 16° 50′ N., lon. 94° 45′ E. This port has a greater depth of water than Rangoon, but is less centrally situated for trade, for the streams that connect the Basseen river with the Irawady are navigable only part of the year, so that for the remainder it is precluded from free intercourse with the northern quarters of the Burmese empire.

BASSUM (*or Wausim.*)—A district in the Hyderabad territories, division of Nandere, situated between the twenty first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. It has an uneven hilly surface, intersected by small streams that flow into the Godavery. Respecting this part of the Deccan very little is known, although it is particularized by Abul Fazel in the institutes of Acber. At Houndah Nagnath, a village south of Bassum town, is an ancient temple covered with statues and sculpture, evidently belonging either to the Buddhists or Jains. Among the statues are three large simple-looking figures, in a contemplative position, with curled wigs.—(*Erskine, &c.*)

BATANG.—An island in the eastern seas lying off the south-eastern

extremity of the Malay peninsula, and surrounded by numberless small rocky islets. It is separated from the island of Bintang by a narrow strait, and may be estimated at twenty-five miles in length, by ten the average breadth.

Batang (*or Patany Hook.*)—A port in the Gilolo passage, situated on the east coast of the island of Gilolo; lat. 0° 9′ S., lon. 128° 48′ E. On this hook or point is a very strong capacious natural fortress, only accessible by ladders, up the face of a perpendicular rock The top is level ground three miles in circumference, containing houses and gardens In 1770 the natives here supplied the French with clove-plants, which do not thrive further east than Gebby isle, on which account the Dutch formerly maintained cruizers here to prevent the smuggling of spices — (*Forrest &c*)

Batalin.—An island in the eastern seas situated off the coast of Celebes, about the 124th degree of east longitude, and between the first and second degree of south latitude In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by seven the average breadth; but it does not appear to have been ever explored.

Batavia.—A large city in the island of Java, the capital of the Dutch possessions in the Eastern Archipelago; lat. 6° 8′ S, lon 106° 54′ E. The ground plan of the town is in the shape of a parallelogram; the length of which from north to south is 4,200 feet, and the breadth 3,000 feet. The streets are laid out in straight lines, and cross each other at right angles. This city, however, is greatly changed since the British conquest in 1811, prior to which all the fortifications had been destroyed by General Daendels, who demolished the ramparts in order to admit a free circulation of air. Of the splendour and magnificence which formerly procured for this city the appellation of Queen of the East, little is now to be seen, whole streets of houses having been pulled down, canals filled up, forts destroyed, and palaces levelled. The stadthouse, where the supreme courts of justice and police assemble, still remains, but all the wealthy inhabitants after having transacted the business of the day, retire to the more elevated stations of the interior; and although the richest productions of Java continue to be deposited in the warehouses of Batavia, few Europeans venture to sleep within the limits of its pestilential atmosphere.

The great church, built in 1760, has been also pulled down, in consequence of the foundation having given way, so that the new Lutheran is the only one frequented by the Protestant part of the community, the native Christians resorting mostly to the Portuguese church. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the district of Batavia, including Buitzenzorg, contained a population of 408,327 persons, of which number 55,027 were Chinese A poll-tax however being levied on the Chinese, and other duties rendering it the interest of all parties to withhold accurate returns, it is probable the real amount exceeds the above estimate.

Population of Batavia and its suburbs within two miles distance, A D. 1815.

Europeans	543
Descendants of ditto born in the colony	1,485
Arabs	318
Moormen	319
Malays	3,155
Javanese	3,331
Buggesses	1,863
Macassars	2,029
Balinese	7,720
Sumbhawese	232
Madhurese	223
Amboynese and Bandese	82
Timorese and Bootonese	24
Pernakans (a half-caste Chinese	605
Chinese	11,249
Slaves	14,239
Total	47,217

According to an official valuation in 1813, the value of property in houses and lands belonging to individuals in this town and its environs exceeded eleven millions of silver rixdollars, on which amount the taxes were levied.

The whole city of Batavia has long been proverbially unhealthy, not so much from the heat of the climate, as from its injudicious situation and misplaced embellishments. It was not only surrounded with water nearly stagnant, but every street had its canal and row of evergreen trees. These canals became the reservoir of all the offals and filth collected in the city, and having scarcely any current, required constant labour and attention to prevent their being choaked up altogether. On the land-side were, and still are, gardens and rice grounds, intersected in every direction by ditches and canals, and the entire shore of the bay is a mud bank, mixed with putrid substances, sea-weed, and other vegetable matter, in a state of fermentation. To these swamps, morasses, and mud banks, add the intemperate habits of the old Dutch colonists, and the insalubrity of Batavia will be adequately accounted for.

A circular range of islands protects the harbour from any heavy swell, and ensures safe anchorage; some of them, such as Anrust, Edam, Cooper's isle, are fortified, and contain warehouses, hospitals, and naval arsenals. On the inland side of the town the industrious Chinese carry on their various manufactures, such as tanning leather, burning shell lime, baking earthenware, boiling sugar, and distilling arrack. Their rice grounds, sugar-cane plantations, and well stocked gardens, surround the city, the markets of which abound in all sorts of tropical fruits, pine apples being in such profusion that they are sent to the market in carts, piled up, like turnips to Covent Garden. A great majority of the tradesmen, butchers, fishmongers, greengrocers, upholsterers, tailors, shoemakers, masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths, are Chinese, who also contract for whatever is wanted in the civil, military, or marine departments. They also farm from the Netherlands government the several imports, the export and import duties, and the taxes Their campong or town, close to the city walls, is an active scene of bustle and business, resembling a bazar in China. It consists of about 1,500 mean houses, huddled together, containing 14,000 inhabitants and 400,000 swine. In 1740 the Dutch murdered 10,000 of them.

The commerce of Batavia is considerable, but is principally a trade of barter, bullion not being much exchanged in large payments. From Bengal the principal imports are opium, drugs, and Patna cloths of different kinds From Sumatra, camphor, benzoin, birds'-nests, calin, and elephant's teeth. From China, porcelain, teas, silks, nankeen, alum, borax, brimstone, cinnabar, mother-o-pearl, paper, sweetmeats, and tobacco Three Chinese junks of about 1,000 tons from Amoy, and four from Changlin of 500 each arrive annually in Java, six at this port, and one at Samarang.

The staple articles of export from Batavia are rice, coffee, sugar, pepper, and arrack. Java is the only island of the archipelago that exports rice, the best loading ports being Indramayu, Cheribon, Tagal, Paccalongan, Japara, Gressic, and Sourabhaya. A.D. 1815 it might be exported for about 3*s* 8*d*. sterling per cwt., but in the European market it is reckoned of inferior quality to the Carolina and the Bengal, the first selling for 18*s*., and the second for 11*s*. 3*d*. when the Java brings only 9*s*. 9*d*., which is more attributable to the clumsy mode of preparing the grain, than to any real inferiority. Besides the quantity distributed among the Eastern islands, in 1818 above 27,000 tons were exported to Europe, probably not above one-twentieth of the whole production. Coffee is also an important article, and may be raised with profit for four Spanish dollars per Java picul of 136 pounds avoir-

pois In 1818 the total produc-
ɪn of this berry in Java was esti-
ited at 25,840,000 pounds. Sugar
usually sold to the exporters at
ght Spanish dollars the white, and
ɛ or seven the brown, per Java
.ul In 1818 the total quantity
oduced amounted to 27,200,000
unds, ranking in quality with that
the Brazils Teak grows so abun-
ntly in Java. that in 1818 it was
timated that the hull of a teak
ip, well-fastened and sheathed with
pper, might be constructed for £12
r ton.

The Dutch being the only nation at keeps up an intercourse with ıpan, a ship is annually despatched om Batavia laden with kerseymeres, ie cloths, clock-work, spices, ele-ıant's-teeth, sapan-wood, tin and rtoiseshell The returns from Japan onsist principally of ingots of the est red copper, which is converted to a clumsy sort of coin for paying ıe native and European troops Va-ous other articles are smuggled in y the officers, such as sabre-blades an excellent temper, Japan cam-ıor, soy, china-ware, lacquered ware, ıd silk goods The cargo always ontains a present for the emperor of ıpan, and he in return sends one the Governor-general, consisting sually of desks, drawers, and close-ools of valuable inlaid wood, covered ith the celebrated Japan varnish, and ıcrustated with flowers and other de-gns in variously coloured mother-o'-earl.

A D 1619, John Pieterson Coen, ıe Dutch governor, took the town of ıcatra by assault, and in a great easure destroyed it. He afterwards unded another city, not exactly on e same spot, to which he gave the ıme of Batavia. In 1811 it sur-rendered at discretion to the British my under Sir Samuel Auchmuty, eneral Jansens having retired to the rtified camp at Cornelis, where on e 25th August of the same year he as attacked, totally routed, and the land subsequently was completely ıbdued Of the strong camp at Cor-elis there are now few traces, the fortifications having been all rased, the works destroyed, and their site soon covered by the exuberant vege-tation of a tropical climate During the British possession of Batavia, which lasted until the 19th August 1816, its condition was greatly im-proved, and even its pestilential atmo-sphere somewhat ameliorated by the great pains bestowed on the draining of the marshes, the cleaning of the town, and the removing of the Euro-peans to the elevated tracts of the in-terior —(*Stavorinus, Barrow, Raffles, Crawfurd, Thorn, Staunton, &c*)

Batchian —One of the Molucca islands, separated from Gilolo by a narrow strait, and situated between the equator and the first degree of south latitude It is of an irregular figure, but in length may be estimated at fifty-two miles, by twenty the ave-rage breadth In 1775 the Sultan of Batchian claimed dominion over the islands of Oby, Ceram, and Goram, but was himself held in vassalage by the Dutch The inhabitants are nearly all Malay Mahomedans —(*Forrest, &c*)

Bate Isle —An island situated at the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula, lat 22° 27′ N, lon. 69° 19′ E Bate signifies an island of any kind, the proper name of this one being Shunkodwar There is a good harbour here, well secured from the prevailing winds, but the anchorage is rocky Although the port has been improved, it is and has always been an insignificant place. yet in 1803 it repulsed a British attack with consi-derable slaughter In 1809 about 150 vessels belonged to Bate, and, until the interference of the Bombay pre-sidency, were the piratical vessels so much dreaded by native craft along the western coast of India

The island does not produce suffici-ent food for its own subsistence, large quantities of ghee, sugar, grain, &c are consequently imported and con-sumed by the numerous pilgrims that resort to the holy places In 1809 Bate contained about 2,000 houses, mostly inhabited by Brahmins, but it

also possessed Amramra, Positra, Bhurwalla, and some other fortified places, since dismantled. The whole revenue arising from the temples, port duties, and pirated property, probably never amounted to two lacks of rupees per annum. In 1807 its chiefs were fined for their piracies, and compelled to sign an engagement to abstain from robbery in future. It was taken and sacked by Sultan Mahmood Begra, of Ahmedabad and Gujerat, in A.D. 1462.

Shunkodwara is the proper denomination of this island, being derived from that of a Hindoo demon, thus named from his dwelling in a large chank, conch-shell, or buckie, within which he concealed the sacred vedas, recently stolen from Brahma. An incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Shunk Narayan, cut open the shell, and restored the vedas to their lawful owner. The demon pleaded as his excuse, that he hoped to have been put to death by Vishnu for the theft, which would have insured him future beatitude. In consequence of this exploit, Shunk Narayan (Vishnu), or the destroyer of the shell demon, established his own worship on the island, where it flourished until the flight of another Hindoo god, named Runchor, from Dwaraca, to escape the fury of a Mahomedan army, since which the latter has taken the lead and engrossed all the offerings.—(*Macmurdo, Treaties, &c.*)

BATICALO.—A town and district on the east coast of Ceylon, situated on an island three miles in circumference, sixty-six miles S.S.E. from Trincomalee, lat. 7° 43′ N., lon. 81° 45′ E. The fort here is of a square form with a few bastions, on which, in 1803, twenty-four guns were mounted. The inlet of the sea that surrounds Baticalo penetrates thirty miles into the country, and comprehends several other islets of still smaller dimensions. In many places this frith is a mile broad, but unfortunately a sand bar stretches across the entrance and precludes all but craft under eighty tons. The inhabitants are mostly Hindoos and Mahomedans, the native Christians being comparatively few in number. The interior remains covered with primeval forest and thick jungle, where wild in woods the noble savage man, here a very miserable animal, ranges unmolested under the name of bedah or vedah. Beyond the first chain of hills are the still more rugged mountains of Ouva, renowned for ages as the last asylum of the Candian monarchs; and it was amidst them that, in 1631, the Portuguese army and their general Constantine de Saa, in attempting to track the king to his den, were overpowered, and perished to a man.—(*Cordiner, Bertolacci, Major Johnston, Percival, &c.*)

BATINDAH.—A large town in the province of Ajmeer, about seventy-five miles S.W. from the British cantonments at Luddeeanna, lat. 30° 12′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E. Formerly the surrounding country was known by the name of the Lacky jungle, much celebrated for the goodness of its pasture, and the excellent breed of horses, said to have been improved by the Persian and Tartar horses, introduced during the invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul. Forty years ago this jungle was described as forming a circle forty miles in diameter, and the then Raja of the Lacky jungle paid a tribute to the Seik chief of Puttiallah. The soil being sandy, a great depth must be perforated before water is reached.—(*George Thomas, &c.*)

BATTALAH (*or Vatala*).—A large town in the province of Lahore, situated in an open plain twenty-six miles N.E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. It is surrounded by groves of mangoe-trees and tanks of water, and is considered the healthiest place in the Punjab. The hills lie about seventy miles off, and in winter are covered with snow.—(*11th Reg. &c.*)

BATTAMANDE.—A point on the north-west coast of Borneo, lat. 5° 6′ N., lon. 116° 45′ E. To the sout'

of Battamande is a commodious bay at the mouth of the Pandoosan river. From Pirate's Point, which lies in 7° N., are several bays, where shipping may anchor safely, and get water from the shore.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

BATTANTA.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about the 131st degree of eastern longitude, and separated from the island of Sallawatty by Pitt's Straits. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by five the average breadth.

BATTANPATTY ISLES.—Two small isles lying off the western coast of Wageeoo, about the 130th degree of east longitude; both comprehended within a circumference of eighteen miles.

BATTECOLLAH (*Batucala*).—A considerable town on the sea-coast of Canara, the name of which signifies the round town. Lat. 13° 56′ N., lon. 74° 37′ E. It stands on the north bank of a small river, the Scandaholay, which waters a very beautiful valley, surrounded on every side by hills, and in an excellent state of cultivation.

BATTAS (*Batak*).—The space in the island of Sumatra known by the name of the Battas country, may be described generally as comprizing that portion of the island situated between the equator and 2° 30′ north latitude, with the exception of a few Malay settlements at the mouths of the rivers on the coasts. On the north-west it is bounded by Acheen, and on the south-east by the Malay countries of Rawa and Menancabow. It is partitioned into numerous districts, the principal of which are Toba, Mandeling, Angkola, Humbang, and Si Nambila. The district, or rather province of Toba, which is much the largest, is again subdivided into Silindung, Holbang, and Linton.

Proceeding in a north-easterly direction across the island, we meet with the Batta district of Looboo and Manambin. Following the same direction from Natal, we meet with the divisions of Palampungan and Mandeling. Going from Batang Tara, we meet with those of Angkola, Barumun, and Sama Jambu; from Tapanooly with those of Pangaran, Lambung, Silendung, Butur, Holbang, and the district of Humbang. Proceeding north-east from Baroos, we meet with the districts of Linton and Si Nambila, from Sinkel, with the district called Dairi, and from Tarumo, with the divisions of Alas, Karaw, and Ria, extending inland nearly to the northern extremity of the island. The great lake of Toba, the middle of which bears about north-east from the settlement of Tapanooly, is situated nearly in the centre of the Batta country, and the best peopled tracts are those on its borders. The total population of the Batta country has been estimated at 1,500,000 persons.

The Battas (properly Bataks) consider themselves the earliest settlers on the island, but all traditions of that event are lost, except a notion that the mother country lay to the east of their present domicile beyond the sea. The Sultan of Menancabow appears subsequently to have obtained a supremacy over them, which they acknowledge to the present day. In their persons they much resemble the Hindoos, are of middle stature, robust and well made, with rather prominent noses. Their teeth are carefully filed down to the stumps, and blackened.

Rice and sweet potatoes, with an unusually large proportion of salt, form their principal sustenance, animal food being only indulged in on particular occasions, when they are not very scrupulous as to the animal, the mode in which it lost its life, nor its state of sweetness or putridity. The well established practice of cannibalism, led both Malays and Europeans to the conclusion that the Battas were a ferocious and martial people, than which, however, nothing can be more remote from the fact, for in quietness and timidity they surpass the Hindoos, and even although they eat each other during their wars, they commit no excesses

on crops or cattle. This people are by the same authorities described as cruel, cowardly, and sordidly avaricious.

With respect to religion, the Battas believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, who after completing the creation of the world, committed its government to his three sons, but even they have become averse to the trouble, and now perform the duties of their office by vakeels and proxies. In their different gradations they are described as the gods above, the gods of the middle, and the gods below, the whole with their names savouring strongly of Hindoo derivation. Besides these they have a fabulous serpent, with horns like a cow, on which it supports the earth; but every village has also its guardian deity, whom they conciliate by propitiatory sacrifices. Besides these general interferences with the affairs of the community, each individual Batta is constantly watched over by a number of good and evil genii, called Bogus and Saitans. These are chiefly the souls of departed ancestors, who possess great power over the living, either to protect or annoy them, but much the most inclined to the latter. By this host of genii, ghosts, spirits, and divinities, the superstitious Batta is held in such perpetual dread, that danger threatens him on every side, not the less real in his opinion from being invisible. To others the path may seem clear and unobstructed, but the teeming imagination of the Batta meets a phantom at every corner he turns. Not a village but has its brigade of demons, protecting its interests and avenging its injuries, besides squadrons of ghosts and other disembodied spirits wandering about to retaliate any insult they or their ancestors may at any prior period have received.

To obviate these constantly impending evils recourse is had to the priest, who not unusually is also the Raja and village astrologer, and of course consulted on every occasion of importance. Owing to their penurious habits, the Battas do not willingly offer sacrifices, but on adequate emergencies, and while under severe fears or sufferings, when they invoke the shades of their ancestors, and make offerings to the gods. The priest by inspecting his books discovers the animal proper to be offered, whether buffalo, pig, kid or fowl, and also the nature of the crime committed. The suppliant is informed that his affliction is a visitation from one of the invisible genii for the misconduct of some of his ancestors, to obviate which he must celebrate a feast in honour of his father or grandfather, and thereby obtain his forgiveness. Of a future state of reward and punishment these people have not the slightest idea, and consequently look forward to death without terror, except that excited by the apprehension of bodily pain. Although they believe in a constant and immediate interposition of supernatural agents in human affairs, it has no influence on their morals, for it may be safely asserted that the corruptions of the heart, so inherent in savage nature, exists among them without restraint.

The language of the Battas bears so great a resemblance to the Malay, that they may be considered dialects of the same origin, but the language of conversation differs more from the Malay than that usually written. Like the Malay also, the grammatical relation of its words are eminently simple, and rarely admitting the use of either conjunctions or personal pronouns, and its intonation is deep sounding, and harmonious. The written characters are remarkably simple and distinct, easily formed, and fully capable (with the exception of a single instance) of expressing every sound that occurs in the language. They are written, like the Sanscrit, from the left to the right, horizontally (not perpendicularly) in one continued line, without separating the words. As they are undoubtedly of Sanscrit derivation, they partake of the nature of that system, each consonant containing an inherent

vowel sound in addition to its proper organic sound, by which it has uniformly the power of a distinct pure syllable. Probably about one Batta in fifty can read. Their books are chiefly astrological, religious, fables, omens, predictions, charms, &c; they are said, however, to possess a history of the creation, and an account of their own origin, but these have not yet been seen by any European. They seldom commit their poetry to writing, but their memories are so loaded with it, that they can support alternate contests in quatrains for many hours.

Almost all crimes are punished with fines proportioned to the offence and rank of the perpetrator, but the chief who presides may always be bribed. They have no written code universally received, but in most districts one or more books of law and usages is to be found, which vary in weight of authority according to the degree of estimation bestowed on the individual by whom they were first indited.

Persons caught in the act of housebreaking or highway robbery are publicly executed with the knife or matchlock, and then eaten forthwith; no money can then save them: but if the delinquents be fortunate enough to escape immediate detection, they are only fined. A man taken in adultery is instantly devoured, and may be lawfully eaten piece-meal, without being previously killed. Men killed or taken prisoners during a great war, are also publicly eaten, but if only two villages be engaged, this is not allowed: in the last case the dead are left on the field, to be buried by their respective parties, and the prisoners may be redeemed. In May 1821 twenty persons were entirely eaten in one day, in the village in the Silindung district, where Messrs. Burton and Ward resided for a short time in May 1822, and their skulls preserved. These criminals were inhabitants of a village situated near the path leading to the coast, and in the habit of plundering travellers and traffickers. It does not appear, however, that any European has yet seen cannibalism actually practised.

Interest on small debts is sometimes so high as 100 per cent per mensem, and a man and his whole family are sometimes sold to discharge a debt, the principal of which only two years before was a single dollar. In cases of debt incurred at games of chance, their usages are singularly barbarous and inhuman, yet these infatuated and sordid people will frequently risk their all on a single throw of the dice. Domestic slavery exists to a considerable extent, but they import no foreigners, the slaves are principally orphans, debtors, and prisoners of war. A man may have as many wives as he can purchase, but seldom has more than two, who are mere labouring slaves, the husband doing comparatively little. The dead are generally buried outside the village, and a funeral feast is a necessary accompaniment.

The Battas are on the whole a more industrious race than the Malays of the sea-coast, who are mostly supplied from the interior, both with the necessaries of life and articles for commercial interchange. Prior to A.D. 1820 the Battas could not be prevailed on to accept in payment of any other dollars than those of Carolus the Third and Fourth, which have a remarkably large and full bust, while those of Ferdinand the Seventh are small and spare. To these last they were consequently averse, while the Caroli bore a premium of two and three per cent., which subsequently increased as the Battas either hoarded them up and concealed them, or melted them to fabricate personal ornaments.

Exclusive of the general deference to the ancient sovereign of Menancabow, the Battas acknowledge the supremacy of a single chief, residing at the north-west extremity of the lake of Toba, but the dependence seems entirely founded on superstition, as he interferes in no lay affairs, which are settled by the head-men of the villages, whom he usually appoints as deputies. Indeed, the actual

existence of this personage requires confirmation. Besides this extraneous influence, every village is a distinct community, possessing within itself every civil and political power, like the ancient municipal towns of Europe. The chief, with the assistance of the leading men, frames laws, declares war, concludes peace, and administers justice. His power greatly depends on his personal character, and the degree of address with which he manages the superstitious fear of his people

That this extraordinary nation has preserved its stationary barbarity, and the rude genuineness of its character and manners, may be attributed to various causes: such as the want of the precious metals, the vegetable riches of the soil easily obtained, their ignorance of navigation, the divided nature of their government, which are circumstances unfavourable to the propagation of new opinions and customs; and lastly, the ideas entertained of the ferocity of a people, practising anthropophagi, which may well be supposed to have damped the ardour, and restrained the zeal of religious innovators.—(*Burton and Ward, Marsden, Anderson, &c.*)

Battu (*or Pulo Batu.*)—An island lying off the western coast of Sumatra, situated immediately south of the equinoctial line, and in length about forty miles, by ten the average breadth. It is inhabited by a colony from the island of Neas, who pay a yearly tax to the Raja of Baluaro, a small fortified village in the interior, belonging to a different race, whose number is said to be limited to 100, which it is not allowed to exceed, exactly as many children being reared as are sufficient to supply the deaths. They are reported to resemble the Macassars and Buggesses, and may have been originally adventurers from Celebes. The influence of the Baluaro Raja over the Neas colonists, who out-number his subjects by twenty to one, is founded on a superstitious belief with which they are impressed, that all the water in the island will become salt if they neglect to pay the tax. He, in his turn, being in danger from the Malay traders, who resort hither from Padang, and are not equally credulous, is obliged to pay them an annual tribute of sixteen ounces of gold

The food of the people here, as on the other south-western Sumatran isles, is mostly sago, and their exports cocoa-nuts, oil in considerable quantities, and sea-slug, or biche de mar. No rice is cultivated Pulo Batu is visible from Natal Hill, on the main-land of Sumatra, and is entirely covered with wood —(*Marsden, &c*)

Battitaki.—A harbour situated at the northern extremity of the island of Magindanao, lat 5° 42′ N., lon 125° E This port is known by a remarkable rock about the size of a large dwelling-house, of a pipe-clay colour, between which and the main is a reef of rocks, that boats may pass over at high water, within these is ten fathoms water The Dutch once attempted a settlement here, but were expelled by the natives.—(*Forrest, &c*)

Batu Bara —A petty town and state of some note on the north-eastern coast of Sumatra, situated on both sides of a river of the same name, lat. 3° 13′ N., lon 99° 37′ E. The name Batu Bara originates from a large stone in the interior, which at night has the appearance of being red hot. The country is subordinate to Siak, from whence the local chiefs receive their chops and dignities, but being rich and commercial, their allegiance is not very submissive In 1822 salt-fish, rattans, and silk cloths were the principal exports, about seventy chests of opium and some raw silk the chief imports; slaves and horses are brought down from the interior. The inhabitants are considerable prow-owners, and general carriers of the traffic between this part of Sumatra and Penang, &c Some are in consequence wealthy, according to Malay ideas, and own several large vessels They also ma-

nufacture rich silk and gold cloths, and coarse cotton cloths. In 1822 the stationary Malay population was estimated at 10,000; the Batta cultivators of the interior, most of them cannibals, were also numerous. The Batta chiefs sell their daughters to the Malay nobles for between 300 and 400 dollars, and usually present along with her ten or twelve slaves, a few horses, and some buffaloes The blood-money for murder here is 444 dollars and 44 pice, and wounds of various degrees of severity are expiated in proportion —(*Anderson, &c*)

Baug —A town in the province of Malwa, situated at the confluence of the rivers Girna and Waugney, about eighty miles S W from Oojein; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon 74° 54′ E. The mountainous tract on which Baug stands stretches for a considerable distance along the course of the Nerbudda, but leaving in general an intermediate plain between the ridge and the river of about ten miles in breadth. There are few towns or even villages on this range, which is thinly peopled by miserable Bheel tribes, some still in the migratory stage.

The town of Baug is built on horizontal beds of sand-stone, at the foot of a range of low hills about 100 feet high, forming the western boundary of a pleasant valley, three miles long by one in breadth. In 1818 it contained only 400 houses; but prior to the desolation of the last twenty years is said to have contained 2,000. It lies on the road from Malwa to Gujerat by what is termed the Oudipoor pass, and from hence two roads diverge; one eastward through the Tanda pass, the other by the Tirella ghaut, leading to Indore and Oujein. In 1820 the town and pergunnah belonged to Sindia, but yielded him only 9,000 rupees per annum. Iron ore abounds, and is fused by the native blacksmiths, who procure above fifty per cent. even by their imperfect processes.

Four miles S.S.E. of Baug are the sculptured cave temples, four in number, but only the most northern remains in a state of preservation. The open area of one cave is eighty-four feet square, besides which there are many side rooms, and others further advanced into the hill; but without plates it would be impossible to render the subject intelligible. Mr Erskine is of opinion that these excavations are of Buddhist origin, and present another example of temples dedicated to that religion, in countries where we have no historical record that it ever existed, and where not a single individual of the sect is now to be found Throughout the whole there is no trace of Brahminical mythology, there being no unnatural or distorted figures with many limbs or heads, except a mutilated figure of Ganesa, which has the appearance of being a much more recent piece of sculpture than the others.—(*Dangerfield, Malcolm, Erskine, &c*)

Bauglee.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Keiree nullah, five miles north of Soondursee, and containing a stone ghurry, or native redoubt. In 1820 it belonged to Raj Rana Zalim Singh, and contained about 1,000 houses.

Baugree (*Baghhari*).—A wild and jungly pergunnah in the province of Bengal, district of Midnapoor, situated towards the north-eastern quarter. Although within sixty miles of Calcutta, up to A D 1816, owing to peculiar local obstacles, the authority of government had never been properly established in this tract, nor had the peaceably disposed inhabitants ever enjoyed that protection which had been so effectually extended to all the other parts of the old British provinces. In Baugree the leaders of the Choars continued to act as if they had been independent of any government, and endeavoured to maintain their independence by the most atrocious acts, and frequently by the murder of individuals in revenge for evidence

given against them. Besides thus perpetrating rapine and murder in the prosecution of their ordinary vocation, these miscreants were generally ready to become the instruments of private malice among the inhabitants, when the malignity of their hatred stimulated them to assassination, which they were too cowardly to perform with their own hands. Every attempt to establish an efficient police having failed, it became necessary to concentrate the powers usually vested in different local authorities in one functionary, under the immediate direction of the Governor-general, which was accordingly done, and Mr Oakley deputed to execute this arduous commission.

The first measure adopted by this gentleman was to ascertain the principal ringleaders of the banditti, in order that they might be specifically excluded from the general amnesty to be offered to the great majority of the Choars; the next was to deprive them of their accustomed supplies of food; to encourage a spirit of active co-operation among the inhabitants; and generally to diminish the terror which the cruelty of these robbers had impressed on the neighbouring villagers and cultivators. The success of these measures was becoming daily more conspicuous, when it was unfortunately arrested by the insurrection of the Pykes in the adjacent pergunnah of Bhunjbhoom. The effect, however, of this commotion was only temporary, for by the middle of 1816 the gang of plunderers had been dispersed, and crimes of enormity nearly suppressed, while the current revenue due to government was realized. In February 1816 the Choar banditti consisted of nineteen leaders and about 200 accomplices. In the course of a few months, all the chiefs except two were apprehended, or fell in the attempts to apprehend them; their frequent and pertinacious resistance being partly ascribable to their long habits of ferocity, and partly to their expectation of capital punishment if taken alive.—(*Public M.S. Documents, Oakley, &c.*)

Baukasir.—A town in the province of Mooltan, near the mouth of the Lonee, which together with the whole country under Parkur in 1820 belonged to the Ameers of Sinde.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Baulfah.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the north side of the Puddah (Padma), or grand trunk of the Ganges, twenty-one miles N.E. from Moorshedabad, lat. 24° 23′ N., lon. 88° 44′ E. This is a large and populous place, and of considerable commercial importance. It is also the seat of a commercial resident on the part of the East-India Company. In 1814 a plantation of teak-trees, which had been effected here, had a thriving appearance.

Bauntwah.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-seven miles west from Junaghur; lat. 21° 29′ N., lon. 70° 17′ E.

Bauppttah.—A town in the northern circars, thirteen miles W.N.W. from Nizampatnam; lat. 15° 58′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

Bayhutt.—A town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, twenty miles from Chendaree.

Baypoor (*Vaypura*).—A seaport town on the Malabar coast, seven miles south from Calicut; lat. 11° 10′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. Tippoo new named this place Sultanpatnam, and intended to have made it a commercial emporium. Teak ships of 400 tons are built here, of timber procured in the neighbourhood, and from the chips and saw-dust, teak tar is extracted. Some saw-mills were erected here on speculation, with the view of supplying the dock-yards at Bombay with planks, but the moving power being wind, it appeared too precarious for the heavy machinery required.

Beacul (*Vyacula*).—A native fort on the Malabar coast, thirty-seven miles S. by W. from Mangalore, and placed, like Cananore, on a high point, projecting into the sea towards the south, and having a bay within it; lat. 12° 23′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E. The

town stands north from the fort, and in 1800 contained 100 houses. The inhabitants are chiefly Moplays and Mucuas, with a few Tiars (cultivators) and people of the Concan, who had long settled in Malabar as shopkeepers.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BEARA.—A considerable town in the province of Gujerat, forty miles E. by S. from Surat Castle, where a small detachment of troops is usually stationed.

BEDAGHUR (*Vedaghar*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, nine miles south-west from Gurrah, lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 80° 9′ E.

BEDNORE (*Bedaruru*).—A district in the north-western extremity of the Mysore Raja's territories, situated on the summit of that range of western hills which overlooks the provinces of Canara and Malabar, and is named the Western Ghauts. These mountains, elevated from 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, present to the west a surface in many places perpendicular to the horizon, and their height intercepts the clouds of the western monsoon. Nine rainy months in the year are usually calculated on in this climate, and for six of that number it is usual to make the same preparatory arrangement for provision, water excepted, as are adopted in a ship proceeding on a long voyage. This redundant moisture not only favours the peculiar products of the soil, but also covers the face of the country with timber of great dimensions, and underwood scarcely to be penetrated.

The exports from Bednore consist principally of pepper, betel-nut, sandal-wood, and cardamums, the imports salt, rice, cocoa-nuts, oil, turmeric, and cotton cloths. The roads being bad, most of the exports are carried to Mangalore by porters, the most important article is betel-nut. The difference of elevation makes this climate a month later than on the sea-coast. The cattle are small, but the number reared exceeding that required for domestic purposes, the surplus is exported. When conquered by Hyder, in 1762, the Bednore dominions comprehended the maritime province now named Canara, and to the east a tract of open country, reaching to Santa Bednore and Hoolukera, within twenty miles of Chitledroog.—(*Wilks, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BEDNORE.—A town in the Mysore territories, the capital of the preceding district, and situated in lat. 13° 50′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. It was originally named Biderhully, or bamboo village, until the seat of government was transferred from Ikery, after which it was called Bideruru, or bamboo place. On this removal, the whole revenue being expended here, Bednore became a city of great magnitude and commerce, and is said to have contained 20,000 houses, besides huts, defended by a circle of woods, hills, and fortified defiles. When taken by Hyder in 1763, it was estimated at eight miles in circumference, and the plunder realized was reported (by native authorities) at twelve millions sterling. Being, like his son Tippoo, a great changer of names, he called it Hydernuggur, in which it rejoiced until 1783, when it was taken and plundered by a detachment of Bombay troops under General Matthews, but they were soon after attacked by Tippoo and his French auxiliaries, and all destroyed or made prisoners. At Tippoo's death, Bednore still contained 1,500 houses, besides huts, and it has since greatly recovered, being a convenient thoroughfare for goods. During the Ranny's government, one hundred families of Concan Christians settled here, and subsisted by distilling and vending spirituous liquors, but Tippoo carried them all off to Seringapatam. Travelling distance from Seringapatam, 187 miles, from Madras, 145, and from Poona, 382 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilks, Rennell, &c.*)

BEEANS.—A small and extremely mountainous district in Northern Hindostan, situated about lat. 30° 15′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E., and bordering on the Nepaulese territories, east of

the Cali River, by which it is traversed.

BEEAWUL.—A town belonging to the British government in the province of Candeish, situated at the confluence of the Soornuddy and Arkye, at the N.W. angle of which is a small fort; lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah containing 184 villages.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BEECHOLEE.—A Portuguese town with a small fort, situated on a narrow creek communicating with the harbour of Goa, from which it is thirteen miles N. by E. distant. It stands within the limits of the Goa territories, and is the usual place of embarkation for travellers who have come down the Ram Ghaut from the Deccan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BEECHIACO (*Beechakor*).—A miserable village in the Nepaulese dominions, with a substantial dhurrumsala, situated on an elevated bank above the bed of the Beechiaco torrent, twenty-seven miles south from Catmandoo, lat. 27° 19′ N., lon. 84° 55′ E. This place consists of about a dozen huts, but affords no supplies to the traveller except wood and water, of which last there is a very fine spring, besides several small streams in a wide stony channel, yet there is no cultivation in the vicinity, the only inhabitants being a few Parbutties or mountain Hindoos, who collect duties and supply travellers. The name Bichakor signifies a place abounding with scorpions. During the last campaign against the Nepaulese Beechiaco was taken by Sir David Ochterlony, who established a depôt, and fortified it with a stockade.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BEECHIPOOR.—A village in the province of Mooltan, division of Sinde, situated on the west bank of the Goonee, on the road from Hyderabad to Mandavie, in Cutch, lat. 24° 35′ N., lon. 69° 5′ E.

BEEDER.

A province of the Deccan situated principally between the seventeenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude, and at present comprehended in the dominions of the Nizam. To the north it is bounded by Aurungabad and Berar; on the south by the large province of Hyderabad; to the east it has Hyderabad and Gundwana; and on the west Aurungabad and Bejapoor. The surface of this province is uneven and hilly, but not mountainous, and it is intersected by many small streams, which having fertilized the soil, flow into the Beema, Krishna, and Godavery. The country in general is very productive, and under the old Hindoo government contained a redundant population, but it is now thinly inhabited compared with the British provinces. Although long the seat of a Mahomedan sovereignty, and still subject to princes of that persuasion, the Hindoos exceed the rival sect in the proportion of three to one. The junction of three languages, the Telinga, the Maharatta, and the Canarese, takes place in this province some where near the capital. The largest rivers are the Godavery and Manjera, the chief towns, Beeder, Calberga, Nandere, and Calliany. The principal modern subdivisions are

1. Calberga	5. Beeder
2. Naldroog.	6. Nandere.
3. Akulcotta	7. Patree.
4. Callianv	

After the Mahomedan conquest the province was the seat of the Bhamenee dynasty of Deccany sovereigns, the first of whom was Allah ud Deen, Houssun Kangoh Bhamenee, A.D. 1347, whose capital was Calberga. Besides the princes of the Nizam Shahy, Adil Shahy, and Cuttub Shahy families, founded on the ruins of the Bhamenee dynasty, there were two others composed of sections of their once extensive dominions. One was founded by Ameer Bereed (about 1518), the prime minister or rather the confiner of the two last Bhamenee sultans, and called after him the Bereed Shahy. His dominions were small, consisting of Beeder, the capi-

tal, and a few districts round the city. The royal dignity did not remain long in his family, his territories being wrested from his grandson by the other princes of the Deccan, and the short-lived kingdom of Beeder destroyed Along with the other Deccany provinces, it was subjugated by the Moguls towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century, during the reign of Aurengzebe, from whose successors it was abstracted in 1717, by Nizam ul Mulk, and has ever since been occupied by his successors the Nizams of Hyderabad. But the Peshwa had always large claims for chout on this territory, which, when regularly paid, yielded seventeen lacks of rupees, but when by the fortune of war the Maharatta claims devolved to the British government, the arrears had so accumulated, that in 1820 they amounted to two and a half crores of rupees —(*Ferishta, Scott, Mackenzie, Elphinstone, &c*)

Beeder (*Bidar*)—The capital of the preceding province, situated in lat. 17° 19′ N., lon 77° 46′ E, seventy-three miles N W from Hyderabad. According to descriptions given forty years ago, and we have none more recent, this place is fortified with a stone wall, a dry ditch, and many round towers The wall is six miles in circumference, and the town it encloses stands in an open plain, except the east side, which is on a ground that rises about 100 yards The whole is much decayed, but the remains of some good buildings are still visible. It was formerly noted for works of tutenague inlaid with silver, and near the ruins of old Beeder, Ahmed Shah Bhamenee founded the city of Ahmedabad, which he made his capital instead of Calberga, and this is the modern Beeder. Travelling distance from Hyderabad seventy-eight miles; from Delhi 857, from Madras 430; and from Calcutta 980 miles —(*Upton, Scott, Rennell, &c*)

Beejalpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, three miles and a half south from Indore, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

Beejapoor (*Vijayapura*).—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, division of Chowal, at present subject to the Guicowar; lat. 23° 37′ N, lon. 72° 46′ E., forty miles north from Ahmedabad This tract had been transferred to the British government prior to 1810, but up to that period not the least progress had been made in eradicating the turbulent and rapacious habits of the natives In 1811 it was let in farm for five years at an annual rent of 171,647 rupees; and in 1817, after many endeavours, was given in exchange to the Guicowar for some more peaceable pergunnahs.—(*Rowles, Carnac, &c.*)

Beejnote.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about fifteen miles east of the city of Jesselmere.

Beema River (*Bhima terrific*)—This river has its source in the mountains about forty miles north of Poona, which it passes at a distance of fifteen miles From hence, with many windings, it flows in a south-easterly direction, receiving the accession of various hill streams, until after a course of about 400 miles it joins the Krishna near Firozeghur The horses most esteemed by the Maharattas are bred on the banks of the Beema. They are of a middle size and strong, are rather a handsome breed, generally dark bay with black legs, and are named from the country that breeds them, Beemarteddy horses.—(*Rennell, 5th Register, &c.*)

Beenishehr.—See Maiebum.

Beerat.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty miles N N.E. from Jeypoor; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 75° 59′ E.

Beeranah.—An open village in the province of Ajmeer, situated to the south of the Cuggur, sixty miles N.W. of Hansi, encompassed by a ruinous mud wall without a ditch. In 1810 it contained about 3,000 inhabitants, and had sixteen wells in the vicinity —(*E. Gardner, &c.*)

Beergur.—An open village in the

province of Ajmeer, thirty-five miles from Hissar and three from Futtehabad, situated on the south side of the Cuggur river.

BEGUMABAD.—A village in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, about twenty-three miles E.N.E. from Delhi. To the west of this place there is an old but spacious serai.

BEGUM SOMROO.—*See* SERDHUNA.

BEHAR KATRA.—A fortified town in the province of Malwa, situated within a narrow defile of hills on the left bank of the Parbutty river. In 1820 it contained about 1,100 inhabitants.

BEHDUROO.—A small district in the Kohistan of Lahore, situated to the north of Chamba, but respecting which nothing further is known.

BEHONE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles N.W. from Punnah. Lat. 25° 1′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

BEHREE.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Agra, nineteen miles S.E. from Kalpee. Lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.

BEHUT.—A town and small pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles N.W. from Jeitpoor. Lat. 25° 26′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E.

BEHUT.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, about fifteen miles N.W. from the town of Saharunpoor.

BEILKEIRA.—A village situated on an eminence in the province and district of Candeish, about fifty miles S.S.W. from Boorhanpoor, and remarkable for a well-built stone fort, a rare object in this district, where the village forts are usually of the most wretched description.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BEIROUHNGHUR.—An extensive but unfinished fortress in the province of Malwa, situated on the left bank of the Sipra, a short distance below Oojein. Its outer wall comprehends a smaller fort, also incomplete, which encloses an area with apartments ranged in galleries like a serai, and a pagoda of ancient appearance dedicated to Bhairava, one of the forms of Siva much venerated by the Mahrattas.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BEJAGHUR (*Vijayaghara*).—A large hill-fort in the province of Candeish, situated among the Satpoora range of mountains, and formerly the capital of the old Hindoo province of Nemaur. Lat. 21° 36′ N., lon. 75° 30′ E. By Abul Fazel it is called the capital of Candeish. The modern district of Bejaghur took its name from this fortress, which, however, has long been neglected, Kurgoon being now considered the principal town, as the manager on the part of the Holkar family resides there. With the exception of the small division of Burwannee, the circar of Bejaghur comprizes nearly the whole of southern Nemaur. In 1796 it yielded a revenue of one lack and a half, in 1820 only 50,000 rupees, per annum.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BEJAPOOR.

A large province of the Deccan, extending from the 15th to the 18th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the province of Aurungabad; on the south by the Toombuddra, Wurda, and district of Canara; to the east it has Aurungabad and Hydrabad along the course of the Beema river, and to the west the Indian ocean. In length it may be estimated at 320 miles, by 200 the average breadth.

The western districts of this province are very mountainous, especially in the vicinity of the ghauts, where hill fortresses of great natural strength abound. The site selected for these strongholds are nearly all of the same character, namely, isolated eminences, with flat summits, and sides perpendicular for fifty or a hundred feet from their upper margin, or easily made so by scarping. Being thus rendered inaccessible from be-

low, except by one narrow and difficult path, all necessity for outworks is superseded, and the fortress usually presents only a wall cresting the edge of the precipice, instead of the numerous and intricate lines of defence which connect rock with rock from the base to the summit of the fortified droogs in the south of India Although less alpine, all that extent of surface to the east of the ghauts is also greatly elevated above the level of the sea In such tracts as are flat and arable the black soil prevails, particularly along the courses of the principal rivers, such as the Krishna, Toombuddra, Beema, and Gutpurba.

There is nothing remarkable in the agriculture or productions of Bejapoor, and the local peculiarities will be discussed under the principal heads respectively The horses reared on the banks of the Beema were held in great estimation by the Maharattas, and mounted their best cavalry. Until recently the whole seacoast was possessed by that race, which being little addicted to maritime commerce, whatever traffic did subsist was mostly carried on by means of land carriage; but the amount of this species of interchange all over the Deccan has always been considerable. As this section of Hindostan did not come under the sway of the Mogul emperors until long after the death of Abul Fazel, and remained but a short time in subjection, we have no ancient description of its condition, at present the principal modern geographical and territorial subdivisions are the following, beginning at the south-west.

1 The Concan
2 Colapoor
3 Mortizabad
4 Assodnagur.
5 Bejapoor district
6 Sackur
7. Raichoor
8 Mudgul.
9. Gujundeighur
10. Annagoondy.
11. Bancapoor.
12 Gunduck.
13. Noorgool.
14. Azimnagur.
15. Ryebaugh.
16. Darwar.

In this province, approaching the Krishna from the southward, the Maharatta tongue becomes more and more in use, leaving this river to the south, the Canara dialect declines in a similar proportion: so that the Krishna may be deemed the dividing boundary of the two languages, but the Canara is rather more spoken to the northward than the Maharatta to the south of that river. The Krishna is remarkable also for separating different styles of building. To the south the houses of the lower classes are flat-roofed, and covered with mud and clay, northward the roofs are pitched and thatched. At present the principal towns are Bejapoor, Satara, Goa, Bijanagur, or Annagoondy, Warree, Colapoor, Darwar, Shahnoor, Hoobly, and Meritch.

South of Poona the Bheels are succeeded by the Ramooses, a more civilized and thoroughly subdued tribe, who principally inhabit the detached branches of the western ghaut mountains stretching to the eastward. They have the same thievish habits as the Bheels, but no peculiar language, and being more intermingled, approach the lower castes of Maharattas. They are a numerous community spread over the Bejapoor province, thieves by trade, yet often employed as police servants and village watchmen. They are without caste, but abstain from eating beef, and dislike husbandry and mechanic labour, but are much addicted to hunting and other idle recreations. Like the Bheels, Coolies, and other depredators, the Ramooses are quiet under a vigorous government, but the reverse when the state reins are in the least relaxed, as they then unite in bands and subsist by plunder. Their principal strongholds are in the hills joining the ghauts to the south-west of Satara, but they do not reach further south than Colapoor, or further east than the parallel of the latitude of Bejapoor city.

After the dissolution of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, Aboul-Muzuffir Adil Shahy founded the Adil Shahy-sovereignty of Bejapoor, which, in A.D. 1489, comprehended within the circle of its government all the country from the river Beema to Bejapoor. In 1502 he introduced the ceremonies of the Shiah sect of Mahomedans, which did not, prior to that era, exist in the Deccan. He died A.D. 1510. His successors were:

Ismael Adil Shah; died 1534.

Mooloo Adil Shah; died in 1557. During his last illness, this prince put to death several physicians who had failed in effecting his cure, beheading some, and treading others to death with elephants, so that all the surviving medical practitioners, being alarmed, fled his dominions.

Ali Adil Shah, assassinated 1579. In the year 1564, the four Mahomedan sultans of the Deccan formed a confederacy against Ram Raja, the Hindoo sovereign of Bijanagur; and having totally defeated and slain him in battle, took and plundered his capital. With that raja ended the long-established and powerful Hindoo dynasty of Bijanagur.

Ibrahim Adil Shah the second; died in 1626. During his reign the Mogul power began to be severely felt in the Deccan.

Mahomed Adil Shah; died A.D. 1660. In this reign Sevajee the Maharatta revolted, which with the Mogul conquests reduced the Bejapoor principality to the last extremity.

Ali Adil Shah the second. This prince died in 1672, after a turbulent reign, during the course of which he enjoyed little more of royalty than the name, his country having been usurped by Sevajee and other vassals.

Secunder Adil Shah succeeded, but never acquired any real power, being merely an instrument in the hands of his nobility. With him ended the Adil Shahy dynasty, in 1689, when the city of Bejapoor was besieged and taken by Aurengzebe, and Secunder Adil Shah made prisoner. This Mahomedan dynasty of Bejapoor was remarkable for the practice of conferring Hindoo titles, they being in general exclusively Arabic.

The decay and destruction of the Bejapoor Deccany empire, and the rise of that of the Maharattas, happened so nearly at the same time, that this province cannot with strictness be said ever to have been subject to the throne of Delhi, although regularly enumerated in the list of soubahs. During the reign of Aurengzebe its possession was disputed with much slaughter; but his successors early abandoned it to the Maharattas, and with them, until very recent events, the larger portion of it remained.

After the conclusion of the war with Dowlut Row Sindia in 1804, the Maharatta territories in this province exhibited a scene of the most extraordinary anarchy, and although nominally subject to the Peshwar, his authority scarcely extended beyond the city of Poona, and was resisted by every petty head of a village. The different chiefs and leaders of banditti by whom the country was occupied were almost innumerable; the names and designations of the principal were Gokláh (afterwards generalissimo to the ex-Peshwa and killed in battle), Appa Saheb and Bala Saheb (the sons of Purseram Bhow, and heads of the Putwurden family), Appah Dessaye, Furkia, Bapocjee Sindia, the Vinchoor Cur, Madarow Rastia, the Raja of Colapoor, Futteh Singh Bhoonsla, Chintamun Row (the nephew of Purseram Bhow), Tantia, Punt Pritty Niddy, and others of inferior note depending on these leaders. These assumed the title of jaghiredars, although they were properly only seringjamy sirdars of the Poona state. In fact, there were very few of the southern jaghiredars who had any just pretensions to the territories they occupied in 1803.

In A.D. 1818 the whole of this vast province, with the exception of the territory reserved for the Satara Raja, became subordinate to the British government, which established the district of Darwar, and new modelled the political relations of the

different petty chiefs and jaghiredars, the most noted of whom in 1821, besides the powerful Putwurden family and the Colapoor Raja, were the chiefs of Kittoor, Moodhole, Nepaunee, Nurgoond and Ramdroog, Gujunderghur, Shanoor, and Jambhotee, all coerced (most unwillingly) into peaceful habits by the strong arm of the British power.—(*The Duke of Wellington, Ferishta, Elphinstone, Malcolm, Moor, Wilks, &c.*)

BEJAPOOR (*Vijayapura, the impregnable city*).—The ancient capital of the province of Bejapoor. In old books of European travels it is generally written Visiapoor. Lat. 16° 46′ N., lon. 75° 47′ E.

When taken by Aurengzebe in person, A.D. 1689, the fortifications from description appear to have been of immense extent, for between the wall of what is usually called the fort and the outer wall of the old city, there was said to have been room for 15,000 cavalry to encamp. Within the citadel, or inner fort, were the king's palace, the houses of the nobility, and large magazines, besides extensive gardens, and round the whole a deep ditch always filled with water. It is still asserted by the natives, with their usual proneness to exaggeration, that Bejapoor while flourishing contained 984,000 inhabited houses, and 1,600 mosques. After its surrender the reservoirs and wells in the fort decreased, and the country around became waste to a considerable distance. At present it exhibits to the view a vast expanse of ruins, which prove the original magnitude of the city when it was the capital of an independent monarchy.

The great dome of Mahomed Shah's tomb is discerned from the village of Kunnoo, fourteen miles distant, and from the numerous spires, cupolas, and minarets that strike the eye, a great population is anticipated; but on entering the gate the illusion vanishes, for, excepting the receptacles of the dead, all the other buildings are more or less in a state of ruin. The walls of the outer fort extend eight measured miles by the counterscarp of the ditch, and though decayed in many parts, there is not yet a complete breach through any part of them; indeed, in 1819 guns were still mounted on them, and centinels stationed at the gates. Of these there are seven, *viz.* the Mecca, Shahpoor, Bhaminy, Padshapoor, Allahpoor, and Futteh gates, one being shut up. There were formerly a ditch, covered way, and glacis on the eastern face, but time has scarcely left a vestige of them. The inner fort or citadel is fast crumbling into ruins, and within its enclosure, the palace, or rather its ruins, is situated.

About five miles from the great western gate is a village called Toorvee, built on the outskirts of the former city. At this spot are still to be seen the remains of a royal palace, of a mosque, and of various other erections of less note. To the east of this stands the Dirga of Chunda Saheb, a Mahomedan mosque—a mean structure, but still the resort of devotees; and in a hollow near it are the elegant mausoleum and mosque of Abdalla Khan, minister to one of the Bejapoor sovereigns. From hence to the glacis of the fort is a succession of ruins, chiefly Mahomedan tombs, forcibly reminding the traveller of the space between Delhi and the Cuttub Minar. The mausoleum and mosque of Ibrahim Adil Shah stand among the other ruins of the old city, at a short distance without the western wall of the fort. They are built on a basement 130 yards in length and fifty-two in breadth, and raised fifteen feet; inside 115 by seventy-six, covered by an immense dome raised on arches. The mausoleum is a room fifty-seven feet square, enclosed by two verandas thirteen feet broad and twenty-two feet high. The central chamber of the latter is quite plain, as is also the interior of the mosque, but in other respects these buildings excel in elaborate architectural elegance, and might be advantageously compared with the most celebrated Mogul sepulchres in upper Hindostan. The fretwork of the ceilings of the verandas

their panels covered with passages of the Koran in bas-relief, and stone trellices pierced with a meshwork of Arabic characters, are all in the highest style of oriental sculpture. The rich overlapping cornices and small minarets, terminating in a globe or pinnacle instead of open square turrets, as in the north of India, are remarkable architectural features which seem peculiar to the ruins of Bejapoor.

The number of buildings remaining in a tolerable state of preservation within what is called the fort of Bejapoor (for it is properly a great city separated by fortifications from another still larger) is still very considerable. One entire and very regular street for nearly three miles, about fifty feet wide, paved throughout, and presenting many stone buildings, both private dwellings and mosques There is also another street of this description, which runs parallel to the north, but somewhat more obstructed with rubbish The most remarkable edifices within the fort are the tombs of Abdul Reza and Shah Newauz, the jumma musjeed or great mosque, the celebrated mausoleum of Sultan Mahmood Shah, the bowlee of the Nao Bagh, the town called the Ooperee Boorj, besides eedgahs, mosques, and mausoleums innumerable. There is also a low Hindoo temple, supported by numerous pillars of single stones, in the earliest and rudest style of Brahminical architecture, supposed to have been the work of the Pandoos; and this is almost the only Hindoo structure extant in or about Bejapoor. The military Khajoos, said to have been built by a sweeper, is another of the curiosities, on account of the massy stone chains that hang from its angles, which must have been cut from solid blocks, as no joining in the links is perceptible.

The inhabited portion of the fort is chiefly in the vicinity of the great mosque. There are also groupes of houses scattered over its vast area, and mud hovels are seen stuck up among the massy ruins. There are also some enclosed and cultivated fields; but the space generally is a wilderness, covered with grass and shrubs and interspersed with trees. Without the western gate there is a well-frequented bazar, neatly built of stone, which is now almost the only inhabited quarter of what is called the city. Bejapoor as it now subsists may be described as two cities adjoining each other, that which is called the fort lying to the east, and the old city to the west. On the southern side of the fort there are no traces of any ancient buildings or of the city walls, the walls of the fort being the ultimate boundary of Bejapoor in that direction. Most of the large edifices (the palaces in the citadel excepted) appear to have had little or no wood used in their construction, the prevailing character of the architecture being rather massive solidity, than elaborate workmanship or elegant design. There are some enormous guns still remaining here, corresponding with the Cyclopean magnitude of the fort. Formerly there were twelve, but in 1820 only the great brass gun (cast in 1549) and the long iron one remained. For the calibre of the first an iron bullet weighing 2,646 lbs. would be required In 1823 the Bombay government was extremely desirous of sending it to England, as a present to the King, but until the roads are improved it would be almost impossible to transport such a ponderous mass to the sea-coast.

Until 1818 this city was comprehended in that portion of the Bejapoor province belonging to the Poona Maharattas, during which the ruins were the noted haunts of thieves, who have been extirpated since the introduction of the British authority. No regular survey of this quarter having ever been executed, the position of this city is laid down in the maps full twelve miles nearer the junction of the Malpurba and Krishna than it ought to be, and two-thirds of the towns and villages placed in its vicinity have either no existence, or are misnamed or misplaced. The district of Bejapoor is inhabited by

Canarese, who retain their own language and manners, and in 1818 joined Sir Thomas Munro to expel their Maharatta rulers. By Mr. Chaplin in 1820 the Maharattas were reckoned to compose only one-eighth or one-tenth of the population, and were mostly soldiers and Brahmins.—(*Fullarton, Moor, Scott, Sykes, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Bejapoor.—A large subdivision of the Bejapoor province, bounded on the north, west, and south, by the Beema, Maun, Angurry, and Krishna rivers. The chief towns are Bejapoor (already described), Huttany, and Mangulwara.

Bejawer.—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund, twenty-four miles S. by W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 79° 32′ E. Ruttun Singh, the chief, is a dependent of the British government.

Bejighur.—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the south side of the Kohurry, and within the Maharatta territories south of the river Chumbul; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E., eighty miles S.W. from the city of Agra.

Bejour.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-two miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 79° 27′ E.

Belah.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-one miles S.S.W. from Kanoje; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 79° 33′ E.

Belapoor.—An old Maharatta fortress in the province of Aurungabad, division of Callianee, now in a decayed state, which defends the entrance of the river Pan, below Panwell.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Belaspoor (*Belaspura*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, comprehended within the Rampoor jaghire; lat. 28° 55′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

Belaspoor.—A town in the northern Hindostan, the capital and residence of the Raja of Cahlore, situated on the left bank of the Sutuleje (which is here about 100 yards broad when the waters are at the lowest), 1,465 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E. By Mr. Foster, who visited it in 1783, Belaspoor is described as a well-built town, exhibiting a regularity not often met with in this quarter of Hindostan, and in 1819 it retained the same character. The streets are paved, though roughly, and the houses are built with stone and mortar. The Ranny, or princess of Cahlore (written by him Calour) there resided, and possessed an income which he estimated at twelve lacks of rupees; but a tenth part of the sum would, probably, have been nearer the truth. In 1810 Belaspoor was said to contain 3,000 houses. In 1820 Joudh Singh, a turbulent Seik chief, was fined and punished for systematic disobedience, and more particularly for aggressions committed against the Ranny of Belaspoor and her dependents. In A.D. 1822 this dependent Seik state of Belaspoor devolved to the British government, on the death of the Ranny Deo Koonwur. It was offered to Sobha Singh Kulsea, on condition that he relinquished all lands held under Runjeet Singh, on the north side of the Sutuleje, who declined accepting it on these terms. It was in consequence retained at the disposal of government, with the view of being exchanged for some debateable tracts in the Bhatty country.—(*Foster, Public MS., &c.*)

Belemcheroo.—A small fortress of a compact form in the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated on an eminence about fifty miles N.E. of Gooty, in the division of Curnoul.

Belgaum (*Balagrama*).—A small subdivision (or talook) in the Darwar district, province of Bejapoor, which consists of only three small hamlets, besides the cusba, or capital, being nearly surrounded by the Shahpoor pergunnah belonging to the Putwurden family. In Hindoo geography it

is considered within the ancient region of Canara, but very near the borders of Maharashtra, and it is decidedly in the tract of country distinguished among the natives as the "Kokun." The languages are Canarese and Maharatta. The Ochry gravel is here so hard as to approach the nature of stone, and when cut a few feet from the surface is capable of being formed into a natural brick, and it is of this substance that nearly the whole town of Belgaum is built. The contrast between the bareness of the gravelly hills during the dry months, with their verdure in the rainy season, is very great.

Nearly the whole population in the town of Belgaum, which in 1820 contained 1,309 houses inhabited by 7,652 persons; one-third Maharattas, one-sixth Mahomedans (mostly connected with religious establishments), one-eighth Jains, who have a pagoda here; one-ninth Brahmins, and one-sixteenth the Jungum or Lingayut sect; the remainder consist of various descriptions of artizans. The houses are better than in most parts of India, those of the upper classes being uniform, substantial, and roomy, and the lower classes respectable cottages.

Formerly few coins were known in the bazar, but in 1820 the British troops here were paid in no less than twenty-one sorts of different coins, affording an ample harvest to the money changer. The working days of a Hindoo weaver in this talook are estimated at 280 days per annum; eighty-five being dedicated to religious festivals, deaths, marriages, commemoration of ancestors, &c. Belgaum is said to be the oldest town, but most of the merchants and bankers reside at Shahpoor. Both exports and imports are confined to the six fair months of the year, the violence of the rains and badness of the roads putting a stop to all further locomotion. In 1820 there was an excellent road making to the Ramghaut, to be continued from thence to the sea-coast.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

Belgaum.—A town and fortress in the British district of Darwar, province of Bejapoor, 115 miles travelling distance S.W. from the city of Bejapoor, and forty-three N.W. from Darwar; lat. 15° 52′ N., lon. 74° 42′ E. This place was captured in 1818, after the longest resistance made by any of the Peshwa's forces. It was found in complete repair, the walls massy and solid; the ditch broad and deep, surrounded by an esplanade of 600 yards, and garrisoned by 1,600 men, who only lost seventy killed and wounded during the siege, the interior being so extensive as to afford abundant room to avoid shells. It had been long famous for the salubrity of its climate, equable temperature, and the invigorating freshness of its atmosphere, which peculiarly pointed it out as a suitable cantonment for troops, the water also being excellent, and it was in consequence selected as a permanent military station.

This fort stands in a plain, and is a work of great strength and extent. The ramparts are faced with stone, flanked by massy round bastions, and protected by an admirable wet ditch cut out of the rock, with a sort of glacis and advanced work in front of the principal gateway. Two ancient temples and the ruins of some native dwellings are still perceptible among the heaps of rubbish which encumber its large interior area. The town of Belgaum (which in 1821 contained 7,652 persons) stands high, and is within the influence of the sea breeze. Westerly winds prevail for almost seven months of the year, and are succeeded for a short time by a north wind; during the rest of the year the winds are variable, but mostly from the east and south-east. —(*Fullarton, Blacker, Marshall, &c.*)

Belgautchy.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, about forty-six miles E. of Nattore, and formerly the station of the commercial resident of Hurrial, afterwards incorporated with Commercolly.

Belgram (*Balagrama.*)—A town in the province of Oude, fifty-eight miles N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 10′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E. This town, though now reduced, is of some antiquity, being described by Abul Fazel in 1582, as very healthy and famous for producing men with melodious voices, and it is still distinguished by a ruinous fort and moat. The decayed buildings appear to have been in the best style of Mogul architecture, but the present inhabitants, few in number, dwell in small houses either of mud or wood. This place is remarkable as having been the station first fixed upon for the British "advanced force," in this quarter, which was afterwards transferred to Cawnpoor.—(*Abul Fazel, Tennant, &c.*)

Belinda.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, sixty-six miles south from Lucknow, lat. 25° 53′ N., lon. 80° 49′ E.

Bellary (*Valahari.*)—This revenue and judicial subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded districts occupies the western section of the province, but its limits have not yet been defined with sufficient accuracy. Besides the lands attached to the capital, it comprehends Harponelly, Adoni, Raidroog, Gooty, and Curnoul, under which heads respectively further details will be found, and for a general view of the country, the reader is referred to the article Balaghaut. The principal towns are Bellary, Bijanagur, Harponelly, Adoni, Gooty, and Curnoul, the chief rivers, the Krishna, Toombuddra, and Vadavati. Cotton is generally cultivated but not in large quantities, on account of the precarious nature, and the uncertainty as to its future sale. In 1812, the quantity raised was estimated at 2,000 maunds, but it is supposed since to have greatly decreased. In 1817, the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 981,221 pagodas, and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 927,857 persons. In 1815, the Madras government granted a remission of 2,092 pagodas, on account of the injury done to the crops by the pilgrimage of his Highness the Peshwa and attendants through the district to the temple at Soondoor. This, however, was not the whole loss sustained by the inhabitants who happened to reside within the tract of these locusts, who had besides plundered them of their forage, poultry, and various other articles. In 1814, the judge of Bellary stated in his report to government that not a single application had been made to him for a punchait by any individual whatever.—(*Hodson, Chaplin, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Bellary.—A hill fort with a fortified pettah in the Balaghaut ceded districts, and at present the head-quarters of a civil establishment and military division, lat. 15° 5′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E. The fort is a quadrangular building on the summit of an isolated mass of rock, not remarkably high, but protected by three distinct ranges of works one above the other. There is but one ascent to the top, partly formed by steps cut in the rock, and partly by scaling its irregular surface and taking advantage of its cavities. The pettah below is spacious, and contains a handsome bazar, besides barracks for the European troops, and houses for some of the officers, the principal cantonments, however, are without the walls. The general aspect of the spot is rather naked, but the officers' bungalows are neat white buildings, with tiled roofs, and gardens enclosed by little hedges of the milk plant. The cantonment bazar is ornamented with rows of trees, and is perhaps the widest, cleanest, and most regular military bazar in India. The lower fort at this place is considered by competent judges to be stronger than that at Gooty.—(*Fullarton, Sir Samuel Auchmuty, &c.*)

Bellary (*Valahari.*)—A decayed town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles north from Gurrah; lat. 23° 46′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E. From the extent of ruins seen round this place,

it probably at some former period was of greater importance than it has lately been; but it suffered greatly by the repeated incursions of the Pindarries. In the neighbourhood are some fine Hindoo temples. A little to the south of Bellary, the province of Gundwana commences.

BELLANY PASS.—A pass in Ceylon on the road from Columbo to Candy, situated about ten miles S.W. from the last. The Bellany mountain is 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, yet the summit is shaded by noble forest trees, the scenery beautiful, and the air cool and fresh.—(*Davy, &c.*)

BELLUMCONDAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, thirty-six miles N.W. from that place; lat. 16° 31′ N., lon 80° 3′ E. At this place the country begins to assume a hilly appearance as it recedes from the sea. The soil is black and covered with stones of different kinds, among which grow Indian corn and cotton, but the tract generally may be considered as very unproductive. In the adjacent villages, saltpetre is manufactured.—(*Hayne, &c.*)

BEMBER.—A town in the province of Lahore, 105 miles north from the city of Lahore; lat. 33° 4′ N., lon. 74° E.

BEMPOKA ISLAND.—One of the Nicobar Islands, which see.

BENARES DISTRICT (*or zemindary.*)—This large division of the Allahabad province, is situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. When ceded in 1775 by Asoph ud Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude, it was subdivided into sixty-two pergunnahs containing 12,000 square miles, of which 10,000 compose a rich cultivated flat on both sides of the Ganges. The chief modern subdivisions are the city and district of Benares, and the districts of Juanpoor and Mirzapoor. In the institutes of Acber, A.D. 1582, Abul Fazel describes the province as follows: "Circar Benares, containing eight mahals, measurement 136,663 begas; revenue 8,169,318 dams. This circar furnishes 830 cavalry, and 8,400 infantry."

The climate of Benares, which in winter is so severe as to render fires agreeable, becomes so heated for three months after March, by the setting in of the hot winds, as to destroy all verdure, and would probably be destructive to all European artificial grasses were they introduced. Turnips, radishes, and a variety of greens and garden stuffs, are raised by the natives, but mostly for the consumption of Europeans. There is not much land under rice cultivation, the chief agricultural productions being barley, wheat, and a species of the pea. A small quantity of flax is raised on the skirts of almost every field on account of the oil, its use as an article of clothing not being understood here. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain or peas, and at the distance of eight or ten feet a beautiful flowering shrub, used in dyeing, is planted. A considerable quantity of sugar is produced in this district, and manufactured by a very simple process: a stone mortar and wooden piston, turned by two bullocks, the whole not worth twelve rupees, constitute the most expensive part of the machinery, and the boiling pots are of the most common earthenware. Here, as in the West-Indies, the sugar harvest is the joyous and busy season. The jumma or land assessment to the land revenue in 1813 was 40,79,124 rupees, and the gross receipts of the whole zemindary 45,62,707 rupees. Notwithstanding the advantages that were supposed to attend a settlement in perpetuity, the land revenue of the Benares districts continued to fluctuate in its amount without improving, and at the above date was nearly half a lack below the rate originally assessed by Mr. Duncan.

From Patna to Buxar, Ghazipoor, Benares, and Mirzapoor, a rich country and much cultivation are seen, while the numerous clumps of

of mango trees give the surface the appearance of a forest, and afford an agreeable retreat to the cattle. Both sides of the Ganges, a short distance above Mirzapoor, belong to the Nabob of Oude, and exhibit a marked contrast to the Benares districts, which in the general scale of prosperity yield to few within the British dominions, and are still gradually advancing in population, cultivation, commerce, and buildings, both domestic and religious. The stone quarries at Chunar and Mirzapoor were formerly monopolized by the government, and either let in farm or managed by an agent, but in 1799, in order to encourage the excavation of the quarries, the whole were made free, subject to a moderate duty, which in 1815 yielded 37,000 rupees.

Plain and flowered muslins, adapted to common uses, are manufactured in the northern, baftaes in the western, and sanaes in the eastern parts of the province Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes are the general manufacture. A species of bitterish salt is made in different places, but much the greater proportion of what is consumed is now imported from Bengal, and from Sambher in Ajmeer. A great quantity of excellent indigo is annually raised and exported from Benares, which also furnishes a proportion of the government opium. The principal rivers are the Ganges, the Goompty, the Caramnassa, and the Sone, the two last being boundary rivers, and the country in general is tolerably well supplied with water. The largest towns are Benares, Mirzapoor, Juanpoor, and Ghazipoor. In 1801 the total population was estimated at three millions of inhabitants (probably under-rated), in the proportion of ten Hindoos to one Mahomedan in the towns, and twenty to one in the country.

The code of Bengal regulations has, with very little alteration, been extended to Benares; but in consideration of the high respect paid by the Hindoos to their Brahmins, they have received some special indulgences in the mode of proceeding against them on criminal charges; and it has been further provided in their favour, that in all cases where by law a Brahmin would be adjudged to suffer death, the sentence shall be changed to transportation, or mitigated, at the discretion of government. At the same time some evil practices of the Brahmins were put a stop to; one of which was the holding out a threat of obtaining spiritual vengeance on their adversaries by suicide, or by the exposure of the life, or actual sacrifice of one of their own children or near relations. It was then ordered that atrocities of this nature should not be exempted from the cognizance of the magistrate (as they had hitherto been), or the usual process of the criminal law. The consequence of this interference was, that the frequency of the crime diminished so imperceptibly, that in 1801 only one instance had occurred in the populous district of Juanpoor within six months, on which occasion a Brahmin destroyed himself, and a relation buried his body at the door of the zemindar of the village, with whom he had a dispute Voluntary suicide, however, still continued frequent, four or five persons destroying themselves in the same district each solar month. Another tribe of Hindoos, named Rajcoomars, were accustomed to destroy their female infants in consequence of the difficulty of procuring suitable matches, as is still the practice among the Jhareja chiefs of Cutch and Cattywar. From this practice Mr. Duncan, the resident, prevailed on them to desist, and his injunction has probably been effectual, as the continuance of it has ever since subjected the offender to the ordinary punishment for murder.

Mansuram, the grandfather of Cheit Singh, possessed originally but half the village of Gungapoor, by addition to which, after the usual Hindostany forms, he laid the foundation of this enormous zemindary. He died in A.D. 1740, and was succeeded by his

son Bulwunt Singh, who, in thirty years of his own management, accumulated acquisitions to the present extent of the province. Cheit Singh received the zemindary in 1770, was expelled during the government of Mr. Hastings in 1781, and died at Gualior the 29th of March 1810. The lands were transferred to a collateral branch, the representative of which in 1801 was Raja Oodit Narrain.—(*Tennant, J. Grant, Welland, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

BENARES CITY (*Varanashi.*)—The Sanscrit name of this place is Varanashi, from Vara and Nashi, two streams; and its geographical position is in lat. 25° 30′ N., lon. 83° 1′ E. The Ganges here makes a fine sweep of about four miles in length, and on the convex side of the curve, which is also the most elevated, stands the holy city of Benares. The margin is covered with houses to the water's edge, and the opposite shore being level, the whole may be viewed at once. Ghauts or landing-places, built of large stones, are frequent, and some thirty feet high before they reach the streets. The erection of them is reckoned by the Hindoos an act of useful piety, which perpetuates their name.

The streets here are so extremely narrow, that it is difficult to penetrate them, even on horseback. The houses are built of stone, some six stories high, close to each other, some of them fantastically painted with groups of mythological figures from the Hindoo pantheon, with terraces on the summit, and very small windows to prevent glare and inspection. The opposite sides of the streets, in some parts, approach so near to each other as to be united by galleries. The number of stone and brick houses from one to six stories high exceeds 12,000, and the mud houses to above 16,000, besides garden houses. In general each story of a house is rented by a distinct family, and a great many of the large houses contain 200 persons. In 1803 (according to Mr. Dean) the permanent inhabitants, by enumeration and estimate, amounted to 582,000, and we may now with safety add 50,000 to that number, which was exclusive of the attendants on their Mogul princes and several other foreigners; during festivals, the concourse is almost beyond calculation. The Mahomedans are not supposed to be more than one in ten, and there are said to be 8,000 houses occupied by Brahmins, who receive contributions, although each has a property of his own. Besides natives from all parts of India, considerable numbers of Turks, Tartars, Persians, Armenians, and even Europeans, are found in Benares.

The mosque, with its minars, was built by Aurungzebe to mortify the Hindoos. Not only is it placed on the most elevated site, and conspicuous from being close to the river, but the foundations are laid on a sacred spot, where before stood a Hindoo temple, which was destroyed to make room for the Mussulmaun edifice. From the top of the minars there is an extensive view of the town and adjacent country, and of the numerous Hindoo temples scattered over the city and its environs. The European houses at Seroli are handsome, although they look naked for want of trees: but this bareness is requisite in India, on account of the myriads of musquitoes, and other insects winged and unwinged, which their foliage would harbour. The Raja's residence is at Ramnagur, on the opposite side of the river, about a mile from the city. The European residents are not numerous; a judge, collector, register, and assistants, the members of the courts of circuit, and medical men, compose the whole government establishment; to which may be added a few private merchants, indigo-planters, and persons attached to the government mint. Amidst such a crowd of natives, and in so sacred a town, it may be supposed that mendicants are numerous; many of the natives, however, possess large fortunes, and are actively engaged as bankers and diamond-merchants, for which gems (brought

mostly from Bundelcund) Benares has long been a noted mart. The land in and about the town being high priced and much sought after, and the natives constitutionally litigious, law-suits respecting their proprietary rights are unceasing.

At this city is still to be seen one of the observatories founded in different quarters of Hindostan by the celebrated Raja Jeysingh of Jeypoor The greater part of the instruments are of stone, and some of them evidently intended for the purposes of judicial astrology; but the whole establishment has long been utterly neglected. Some miles to the east of Seroli there is an extraordinary monument, called the Saranath. It appears to be a solid mass of masonry, from forty to fifty feet in diameter, originally shaped like a bee-hive, but the upper part has since crumbled down. Externally it is cased with large blocks of stone, exceedingly well fitted and polished, and decorated near the base with a broad belt of ornamental carving, representing a wreath, and differing greatly from purely Hindoo sculpture Indeed, it much more resembles the building seen by Mr. Elphinstone during his embassy to Cabul, of which he has given an engraving, and to which he ascribes a Greek origin. At Benares the Saranath is supposed to have been a Buddhist structure, from its resemblance to certain tumuli discovered in Ceylon, and in the Buddhist cave temples in the west of India.

Benares, or Casi, or Varanashi, the first being merely the Mahomedan misnomer adopted by Europeans, is held by the Hindoos to be sacred for ten miles round, and the famous lingam it contains is said to be a petrifaction of Siva himself. Another legend of equal authenticity informs us that Benares was originally built of gold, but in consequence of the sins of the people became stone; and latterly, owing to their increasing wickedness, has degenerated into thatch and clay. The Brahmins assert, that Benares is no part of the terrestial globe, for that rests on the thousand-headed serpent Ananta (Eternity), whereas Benares is fixed on the points of Siva's trident; as a proof of which fact, they assert that no earthquake is ever felt within its holy limits, and that in consequence of its peculiar situation it escaped destruction during a partial cataclysm or overwhelming of the world. Most persons stay but a short time at Benares and then return to their families: but even so transient a visit secures the pilgrim entrance into the heaven of Siva. Some visit this sanctuary repeatedly, and one devotee is mentioned who had been sixteen times from Benares to Ramisseram, in the straits of Ceylon There are regular guides or *ciceroni*, who meet the pilgrims in the different villages through which they have to pass, and conduct them collectively to Benares, and many votaries resort here to finish their days, the Brahmins admitting that even the beef-eating English who die within its sacred limits may obtain absorption into Brihm. Some learned Hindoos relax so far as to admit the possible salvation of Englishmen in two other cases; if they become firm believers in Gunga (the Ganges), or die at Juggernauth; and they even name an Englishman who went strait to heaven from Benares—but it appeared that he had also left money for the construction of a temple.

The country opposite to Benares is called Vyasa Casi from the following legend. At a certain time, the great saint Vyasa, the compiler of the Vedas, being angry with Siva, began to found a city which should eclispe Benares. The destroyer (Siva) being alarmed, sent his son Ganesa, the god of wisdom, to thwart by artifice this intention, and he, in prosecution of the design, became the saint's disciple, and asked him daily what would be the result of living and dying in the new city. The query was repeated so often that at last the holy man lost his temper, and in a fit of rage exclaimed that in the succeeding transmigration they would

be born asses, and in consequence abandoned his design. At present some ruins of temples are to be seen, but on account of the above anathema, and an unnecessary apprehension of future deterioration, few persons choose to reside on a spot thus circumstanced.

Benares has been long celebrated as the revered seat of Brahminical learning, and is still reckoned so holy that several foreign Hindoo rajas keep vakeels or delegates residing here, who perform for their employers' benefit the requisite sacrifices and oblations. In 1801, besides the public college for Hindoo literature, instituted during the residency of Jonathan Duncan, Esq., there were in the city private teachers of the Hindoo and Mahomedan law; and of the first 300 were stated to be eminent, the aggregate of their pupils amounted to 5,000. From a prevailing idea that if they were to receive any remuneration from their disciples the religious merit of teaching the vedas would be lost, they accepted of nothing from their scholars, trusting to donations from pilgrims of rank, and to regular salaries assigned them by different Hindoo princes, such as the Rajas of Jeypoor, Tanjore, and some Maharatta chiefs.

In 1811 it was found necessary to revise and new model the regulations of the Hindoo College, to adapt them to the prevailing habits and opinions of the natives, and to correct abuses, of which the following were the most remarkable. The same prejudice existed then, as in 1801, against the function of professor, considered as an office, or even a service; and the most learned pundits had invariably refused the employment, although the salary was liberal. That part of the plan that supposed the attendance of teachers and pupils in a public hall was found altogether inconsistent with the Brahminical tenets, and in reality not only never took place, but tended to prevent the professors giving instruction at their own houses. And lastly, feuds had arisen and embezzlements taken place among the native members of the college. Various measures were then adopted by Lord Minto, with the view of remedying these defects, and renovating the taste for Hindoo literature; but, under existing circumstances, this appears to be a hopeless task, and a misdirection of the native studies, which might be much more profitably applied to the English language, and European science and literature. In 1801 there were thirty persons eminent as instructors in the Mahomedan law; but they were mostly persons of independent property, who held public employments, and gave instructions gratis. Reading and writing are taught here at the same time. The boys are collected on a smooth flat of sand, and with the finger, or a small reed, form letters in the sand, which they learn to pronounce at the same time; when the space before each scholar is filled up with writing, it is effaced and prepared for a new lesson.

A considerable tract of country adjacent to Benares is subordinate to the jurisdiction of its magistrate, and in a progressive state of improvement. The cultivation has every where extended, an observation that may be applied to the whole zemindary, as except in pergunnah Chownsah, and among the hills to the south-east of Chunar, there is hardly a sufficient quantity of uncultivated land for the grazing of cattle. The most valuable articles of produce are sugar-cane, opium, tobacco, betel-leaf, and indigo.

The ancient name of Benares was Casi, or the splendid, which it still retains; but there are not any notices of it in the works of the ancient geographers, although they specify Mathura and Clisobara, which lay near the Jumna. It is probable, that at the period of the Mahomedan invasion it was subject to the Hindoo empire of Kanoje. In A.D. 1017 Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni took Benares and the town of Cassam or Cassima, now Patna, and penetrated as far as the country of Ouganam, or Unja, to the west of the Cossimbazar river.

Next year he overran these countries again, proceeding east as far as Kisraj, or Cachcha Raja, or Cooch Bahar. From that date the Hindoos remained long unmolested, as it does not appear that the Mahomedans made any permanent conquests in this quarter before the end of the twelfth century, or about A.D. 1190, from which era it followed the fortunes of the Delhi sovereigns until it devolved to the British, with the rest of the zemindary, in 1775.

This celebrated town has enjoyed the most undisturbed tranquillity since it came under the direct government of the British nation, by the expulsion of Cheit Singh, in 1781. It has, in consequence, annually expanded in size, the buildings having united the neighbourhood with the body of the town, and as it stands at present, it is probably the largest and most populous city of Hindostan. The inhabitants, generally, are better informed than the common Hindostanies, and are fully sensible of the contrast between the British dominions and those of the native powers, with respect to security of person and property, and the tale of every foreign pilgrim assists to refresh their attention. The Benares court of circuit comprehends the following districts, viz. 1. Mirzapoor; 2. Allahabad; 3. Bundelcund; 4. Juanpoor; 5. Goruckpoor; 6. the city of Benares.

The travelling distance from Calcutta to Benares is 460 miles, by Moorshedabad, 565; from Allahabad, 83; Buxar, 70; Bareily, 345; Calpee, 230; and Kanoje, 259.—(*Ward, Lord Valentia, Tennant, Lord Minto, Fullarton, Routledge, &c.*)

BENCOOLEN (*Bencoulu*), or *Fort Marlborough*.—The chief establishment possessed by the British East-India Company on the island of Sumatra, until it was delivered up, with all their other settlements on that island, to the Dutch, in A.D. 1825.

The town and district of Bencoolen comprehend an area of about ten square miles, with a population of rather less than 20,000 persons, half of which is concentrated in the town, and consists mostly of Europeans and their descendants, Chinese, Neeassies (from Neas Isle), Malays, and negroes. Neither cattle nor sheep are natives of the spot, the buffalo being the only indigenous animal of domestic pecora, but it has not ever been subdued to the yoke. The only species of cultivation that has thriven has been that of the nutmeg and clove. In 1825 it was expected that the first crop would yield 89,000lbs., and the second 34,000lbs., besides 22,000lbs. of mace. The best and most extensive plantations are worked by slaves, without whose aid the cultivation could not be prosecuted. The majority of these are from the island of Neas, some ooloo or country people, others Chinese, and some natives of Bally. Menghering debtors are also a species of slaves, being obliged to exist and work entirely for the benefit of their creditors.

The imports consist of cloths, rice, and salt, by the Buggesses and Bally traders, who take in return opium, English printed cottons, piece-goods, iron, steel, and dollars. From Batavia are imported salendangs, handkerchiefs, tobacco, sugar, and various smaller articles; from Bengal, opium, taffaties, coarse cloths, chintzes, and white cloths; from Coromandel, salt, and blue and white piece goods and chintzes; from Europe, iron, steel, Aurora cloth, beads, brass wire, cutlery, and printed cottons; and from the northern parts of Sumatra, gambir, salt-fish, oil, salted eggs, poultry, salted fish-roes, timber, and planks. There is little or no intercourse with Bombay; the inland trade is insignificant, and the eastern trade in 1821 had greatly declined. Such was the description of Bencoolen immediately prior to its delivery to the Dutch, on the 5th April 1825.

This settlement was acquired in A.D. 1685, and so early as 1698 had already cost the East-India Company £200,000, and continued a most useless, unprofitable colony, until it was fortunately got rid of. So unenterprizing also were the settlers, that

until A.D. 1821 the mountain of Goonong Benko, eighteen miles N.E. from Fort Marlborough, had never been ascended, nor even its exact position correctly ascertained; in that year it was ascended by a party, who estimated its height at about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. —(*Malay Miscellanies, Marsden, Bruce, &c.*)

Bendikee.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eleven miles S.E. from Korah; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

Beneer (*or Booneer.*)—A subdivision of the Sewad province, which from its geographical position appears to have been described by Abul Fazel in 1582 under the name of Bembher, *viz.* "the length of Bembher is sixteen and the breadth twelve coss. On the east lies Puckely, on the north Kinore and Cashgur, on the south Attock Benares; and Sewad is the western extremity. There are two roads from it to Hindostan; one by the heights of Surkhaby, and the other by the Molundery hills Neither of these roads are good, but the first is the most difficult to pass."

According to the information collected by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, Beneer is a rugged country, composed of a number of little vallies, all opening into the river Burrindroo, which traverses the centre, and enters the Indus near Derbend, about twenty miles above Torbela. The banks of this river are fertile, and produce rice, but they are not above a mile in breadth. Some of the wide vallies also produce better sorts of corn, but a species of millet is the most general. Much of this last is grown on the slopes of the hills, which are formed into terraces one above another, and are cultivated with the hoe, and watered by the rains. The hills of Beneer greatly resemble those of Sewad, as they enclose many little valleys, which all open into one great valley, which extends south-east, and contains the brook of Burrindoo. These vallies are narrower and not so well watered as those of Sewad; consequently less fertile.—(*Elphinstone, Leyden, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

BENGAL.

(*Bangala, or Bangga Desa.*)

A large and important province of Hindostan, situated towards the eastern extremity, between the twenty-first and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of Nepaul, Sikkim, and Bootan; on the south by the bay of Bengal; to the east it has Assam and the Burmese territories; and on the west the province of Bahar. In length it may be estimated at 350 miles, by 300 the average breadth.

The geographical position of Bengal is singularly happy with respect to security from the attacks of foreign enemies. Along the whole northern frontier, from Assam westward, there runs a belt of lowland from ten to twenty miles in breadth, covered with the most exuberant vegetation, particularly a rank weed, named in Bengal augeah grass, which sometimes grows to the height of thirty feet, and is as thick as a man's wrist, and mixed with these are tall forest trees. Beyond this belt rise the lofty mountains of northern Hindostan, the population of which is but thinly scattered, and partially civilized. On the south of Bengal is a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, with only one port, and that of difficult access. It is only on the west that an enemy is to be apprehended, and there also the natural barrier is strong, and the adjacent countries sterile and thinly peopled. The river Ganges intersects Bengal in a south-easterly direction, and separates it into two territorial divisions, nearly equal in extent, and so protected, that in case of invasion the eastern tract would remain exempted from the ravages of war, and present an asylum to the inhabitants of the other, more especially from the ravages of cavalry.

The area of Bengal and Bahar is 149,217 square miles, and with Be-

nares not less than 162,000 square miles. The following proportions of this surface are grounded upon many surveys, after making allowance for large rivers.

	Parts
Rivers and lakes (one-eighth)...	3
Deemed irreclaimable and barren (one-sixth)........................	4
Sites of towns and villages, highways, tanks, &c. (one-twenty-fourth)	1
Free lands (three-twenty-fourths)	3
Remain liable to revenue.	
In tillage (three-eighths)	9
Waste (one-sixth)..................	4
	24

According to another calculation Bengal contains 97,244 square miles; if from this that portion of Tipera which is independent, the woods called the Sunderbunds, and other wastes, equal to 13,244 square miles, be dedubted, the remaining inhabited country will be equal to 84,000 square miles; but the extent of waste and surface occupied by rivers, marshes, &c. seems here greatly underrated.

Prior to the cessions made by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, the country immediately subordinate to the presidency of Calcutta, or, as it is termed in the official records, Fort William, comprehended the entire soubahs of Bengal and Bahar, with the large zemindary of Benares (in Allahabad), and Midnapoor (in Orissa), besides some tracts of country which had maintained their independence during the most flourishing periods of the Mogul empire. For many years after the British conquest, the revenue being collected, and justice administered through the medium of native agents, the original Mahomedan fiscal divisions into large zemindaries were allowed to continue unaltered; but subsequently, when it was determined to introduce an improved system of police and jurisprudence, the province was subdivided into the following seventeen districts, each of which will be found described in its place.

Backergunge,	Purnea,
Birbhoom,	Rajshahy,
Burdwan,	Rungpoor,
Chittagong,	Silhet,
Hooghly,	Tipera,
Jessore,	24 Pergunnahs,
Mymansingh,	Midnapoor,
Moorshedabad,	The Jungle Mahals.
Nuddea,	

The average area of a district may be estimated at 5,500 square miles; when they greatly exceed this, it is owing to the extent of waste and wood lands; when less, to their being attached to city courts, or being otherwise peculiarly circumstanced.

The first aspect of Bengal suggests for it the designation of a flat champaign country. The elevated tracts it contains are only an exception to the general uniformity, and the inundation which annually takes place in the regions watered by the Ganges seems the consequence of a gradual descent, and does not any further invalidate the notion of a general level. The tract of annual inundation was anciently called Beng, whence probably the name Bengal was derived; the upper parts of the province not liable to inundation were called Barendra.

Rice, which is luxuriant in the tract of inundation, thrives in all the southern districts, but ascending the Ganges, it is observed gradually to yield the first place in husbandry to wheat and barley. The mulberry acclimated in the middle districts of Bengal, shews a better defined limit when it meets the poppy, which is peculiar to the northern and western provinces. In the opinion of the Hindoos, the resort of the antelope sanctifies the country graced by his presence: a sentiment more connected with physical observation than with popular prejudice. The wide and open range in which the antelope delights, is equally denied by the forests of the mountain and the inundation of the fen.

Throughout the whole province there are not any hills of considerable elevation to be found, and but for the extreme flatness of the southern quar-

ter, would more deserve the name of inequalities than hills. These rising grounds are mostly situated in the districts of Birbhoom, Silhet, Chittagong, and near the eastern boundaries of Tipera, and cover but a small space of the whole area.

Bengal from its north-western boundary to the sea is watered by the Ganges, and is so intersected in every direction by navigable streams, which ultimately join that river, that there is no district wholly destitute of internal navigation during the rains; and even in the driest season there is scarcely any part twenty miles distant from a navigable river. In most of these tracts, lakes, streams, and water-courses communicating with the great rivers conduct boats to the peasant's door; but his most valuable produce being reaped at other seasons, and from necessity disposed of as soon as gathered, he derives less benefit from the inland water communication than the survey of its extent would lead us to suppose. Land carriage conveys great part of the produce from the place of its growth to its embarkation on the Ganges.

In a country so level as Bengal, and where the soil consists of loose materials, upon which running water has a powerful action, the rivers are not only gradually and constantly changing their places, by wearing down their banks, but very often a small obstacle placed in one of these channels forces the water into another, and as that by degrees becomes wider, the first is wholly abandoned in the dry season, and ceasing to have a current, becomes a stagnant marsh. These unceasing aberrations of the river are attended with much inconvenience to the landholders, one person's ground being carried away, and that of another enlarged, while the land assessment on both continues the same. No buildings intended for duration can be raised on so unstable a foundation, so that the wealthy have little comfort in their dwellings, and the country is destitute of ornament. With regard to those of the poor classes, a village in Bengal is removed with very little inconvenience, such a change of place being considered an ordinary casualty, frequently occasioned by an unseasonable shower. These migrations affect the inhabitants but very little, for even in common there are not many houses that last three years, partly owing to the slightness of the materials, and partly to the frequency of fires. The principal rivers of the province are the

Ganges,	Korotaya,
Brahmaputra,	Manas,
Roopnarrain,	Cosi
Dummooda,	Conki,
Teesta,	Manas, and
Kooram,	Jhinayi.

There are not any lakes in Bengal resembling those of Scotland or Canada, but there is a profusion of extensive jeels, which may be either denominated shallow lakes or deep morasses. A large proportion of these in the dry season contain little water, but during the rains present immense sheets, over which boats of the greatest magnitude may be navigated, and some are navigable to a certain extent throughout the whole year. There is reason to believe that nearly all these stagnant sheets of water rest in what were at a remote period the channels of large rivers, which have since altered their courses, and now flow in another direction.

The periodical winds that prevail in the Bay of Bengal, extend their influence over the flat country, until they are diverted by chains of mountains into another direction, nearly correspondent, however, with the course of the Ganges; for when a province is traversed by large rivers, it is probable that the winds are much influenced by the tendency of their course. In the south of Bengal the prevailing winds are north and south; in Bahar east and west; and the same takes place in Assam, following the direction of the Brahmaputra. In Bengal northerly and southerly winds blow alternately, during unequal portions of the year, over that quarter of the province that faces the head of the bay. The seasons of Bengal conform nearly with these changes of the

prevailing winds, and are usually distinguished by the terms cold, hot, and rainy.

In the beginning of April, and sometimes earlier, particularly in the south-eastern quarter of Bengal, there are frequent storms of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain, from the north-west, which happen more frequently towards the close of the day than at any other time. During this, much attention is required in navigating the rivers. These squalls moderate the heat, and continue until the setting in of the periodical rains, which generally commence early in June. If the rains break up in the beginning of September, the weather is intensely hot, and the inhabitants, especially the European part, become very sickly. The natives from the result of their own experience assign six seasons to the year, each containing two months. The spring and dry season occupy four months, during which the heat progressively increases, until it becomes almost intolerable, even to those born in the country. In the middle districts it is lessened by occasional thunder storms, named north-westers, and in the eastern mild showers of rain are still more frequent, and refresh the earth.

The scorched inhabitants are at length relieved by the rainy season, which in general commences nearly at the same season throughout the whole province. During the two first months the rain is heavy and continual. In this period an interval of several successive days is rare, and the rain pours with such force and perseverance, that three, four, and even five inches of water, have been known to fall in a single day. In the two following months the intermissions are more frequent, and of longer duration, and the weather more sultry. The rivers, and especially the Ganges, which begin to rise even before the commencement of the rainy season, continue to increase during the two first months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greatest height in the third. By this time the rivers of Bengal are much swollen, and the Delta of the Ganges overflowed. The average annual fall of rain in the lower parts of Bengal is seldom short of 70, and as rarely exceeds 80 inches.

About the middle of autumn the rivers begin to decrease, and as winter approaches the showers cease to fall, and the inundation gradually drains off and evaporates. Fogs, the natural consequence of such evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in most parts of Bengal Proper. Dew at this season is every where abundant and penetrating; and in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts, frost and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country it is obtained by the simple artifice of assisting evaporation in porous vessels, although the atmosphere be much warmer than the freezing temperature. Throughout the whole winter in Bengal, dews continue copious, and greatly assist vegetation, affording nearly as much moisture as corn requires in so loose a soil. The barometer here is remarkably stationary, standing within a few tenths of an inch of the same height throughout the year, and exhibiting within these narrow limits the phenomenon of diurnal tides.

As the damp of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the earth, it must originate from causes on or above the surface; to the want of a general system of drainage in so level a country; to the luxuriant vegetation, and to the closeness of the woods, which, not being adequately opened, obstruct the ventilation of the surface, and retain a redundant and unwholesome quantity of moisture, amidst rotten leaves and putrid vegetable substances. In the cold and dry seasons the heavy dews are probably not more than sufficient to supply the daily exhaustion of the sun, and probably rather contribute to salubrity than otherwise. Under these circumstances the principal experiments should be directed to draining on a general plan, and the cutting of broad, straight roads through the forests and jungles, as much as possible in the direction of the prevailing winds.

The general soil of Bengal is clay with a considerable proportion of siliceous sand, fertilized by various salts, and by decayed substances, animal and vegetable. In the flat country sand is every where the basis of this stratum of productive earth, which indicates an accession of soil on land that has been gained by the dereliction of the water. A period of thirty years scarcely covers the barren sand with soil sufficient to reward the labours of the husbandman; the lapse of half a century does not remove it half a span from the surface. In tracts that are annually inundated the progress is more rapid, because the superincumbent water deposits sand, and keeps the clay, calcareous matter, and other fertilizing substances, suspended. If the various proportions of clay and sand, and the circumstance of frequent alterations in the channels of rivers be considered, great inequalities of soil may be expected, although it be composed of few substances. In sinking a well near the banks of the Hooghly, in the vicinity of Calcutta, no springs of fresh water were reached at the depth of 140 feet, although it had always been a commonly received opinion that the soil of Bengal was particularly moist and full of springs. The first appearance of damp was at the depth of seventy-one feet, and below seventy-six feet was as dry as on the surface; and in this experiment the borer must have descended nearly to the level of the sea. Throughout the whole of these strata no traces of volcanic matter was discovered, which renders it probable that the shocks of earthquakes about Calcutta, if they have any sympathy with volcanoes, do not originate from any very proximate cause, which is also corroborated by the general feebleness of the shocks. The Monghir hills, which are said to contain volcanic matter, lie at the distance of 250 miles from Calcutta.

In the tracts subject to annual inundation, insulated habitations, and fields considerably raised above the level of the country, exhibit the effects of patient industry. In the same space during the rainy season, a scene presents itself interesting by its novelty: a navigation over fields submerged to a considerable depth, while the ears of rice float on the surface, and stupendous dykes, not altogether preventing inundation, but moderating its violence. The peasants repairing to the markets, and even to the fields, on embarkations, accompanied by their families and domestic animals, from an apprehension that the water might rise suddenly, and drown their children and cattle in the absence of their boats. When the peasant's habitation is passed, and the height of the flood observed nearly to the level of the artificial mound on which it stands, his precaution does not appear superfluous

The assemblage of peasants in their villages, their small farms, and the want of enclosures, bar all great improvements in husbandry, especially in a country so infested with tigers and gang robbers (dacoits) or river pirates, that solitary dwellings and unattended cattle would be insecure. Another obstacle to improvement is the mixture of trades; the peasants indifferently quitting the plough to use the loom, and the loom to resume the plough.

In Bengal and Bahar only one-third of the land is estimated to be tilled, but this is exclusive of lays and fallows In England there are four acres of arable and meadow land for every inhabitant, in Bengal little more than one acre of tilled land for each individual. The natural seasons of rice are ascertained from the progress of the wild plant, which sows itself in the first months of the winter, and vegetates with the early moisture at the approach of the rains. During the period of the rains it ripens, and drops its seed with the commencement of winter. But the common husbandry of Bengal sows the rice at the season when it would naturally vegetate, to gather a crop in the rains, it also withholds seed

until the second month of that season, and reaps the harvest the beginning of winter. The rice of this crop is esteemed the best, not being equally liable with the other to decay. The several seasons of cultivation, added to the influence of soil and climate, have influenced the different species of rice to an endless diversity.

Other corn is more limited in its varieties and seasons Of wheat and barley few sorts are distinguished; they are all sown at the commencement of the cold season, and reaped in spring A great variety of different kinds of pulse (such as pease, chiches, pigeon pease, kidney beans) finds its place also in the occupations of husbandry, no season being without its appropriate species. but most sorts are sown and reaped in winter. These thrive on poor soils, and require but little culture Millet and other small grain are also of importance; several sorts, restricted to no particular season, and vegetating rapidly, are useful, because they occupy an interval after a late harvest which does not admit the usual course of husbandry. Maize is less cultivated in Bengal than in most countries where it is acclimated It is the most usual produce of poor soils in hilly countries, and is consequently very generally cultivated in the more western districts, which are of an irregular surface

The universal and vast consumption of vegetable oils throughout Bengal is supplied by the extensive cultivation of mustard-seed, linseed, sesamum, and palma christi, besides what is procured from the cocoa-nut. The first occupy the cold season, the sesamum ripens during the rains, or early after their close Among the most important productions of Bengal are tobacco, indigo, cotton, the mulberry, and poppy, most of which require land solely appropriated to the cultivation of each. It is a well-known fact, that newly cleared land, for the first four or five years, yields the most productive crops of indigo The grand object of the farmer in Bengal is to have an equable supply of water; and the rains in general are so copious, that if the water were confined on the spot where it fell, the supply would never fail, and it never would be too great, as the power of vegetation would always surpass the rise of the water. But as even in Bengal there are inequalities of surface, the lower parts are often drowned by sudden rains and the upper frequently scorched by too long intervals of fair weather The natives have in consequence an opinion, which appears well-founded, that there cannot be too many small embankments.

The plough in this province is drawn by a single yoke of oxen guided by the ploughman, and two or three yokes of oxen, assigned to each plough, relieve each other until the task is completed. Several ploughs in succession deepen the furrows, or rather scratch the surface, for the implement used throughout India wants a contrivance for turning up the earth, and the share has neither width or depth sufficient to stir a new soil. A second ploughing crosses the first, and a third is sometimes given diagonally to the preceding. These frequently repeated, and followed by a branch of a tree, or some other substitute for a harrow, pulverize the soil and prepare it for the reception of seed. The field must be watched several days to defend it from the flocks of birds, and it is necessary still longer to prolong the defence of the field in such tracts as are much infested by wild deer, boars, buffaloes, and elephants For this purpose a bamboo stage is erected, and a watchman stationed on it, to scare away wild animals should any approach. In all districts, maize, and some sorts of millet, when nearly arrived at maturity, generally need defence from the depredations of birds by day, and of large bats by night. The sickle (for the scythe is unknown) reaps every harvest, as with it the peasant picks out the ripest plants.

The practice of stacking corn reserved for seed is very unusual, the husk that covers rice preserving it

so effectually. At the peasant's convenience the cattle tread out the corn, or his staff threshes out the smaller seeds. The practice of storing grain in subterraneous hoards, which is frequent in Benares and the upper provinces, and also in the south of India, is not adapted to the damp climate and moist soil of Bengal, where grain is hoarded above ground in round huts, raised from the ground and in large piles, the self-generated heat of which will not allow insects to live within the heap. If rice be used too soon after it is gathered (for instance, one or two months) it has been found experimentally to be very unwholesome food.

In the management of forced rice irrigation, dams and embankments retain the water on extensive plains, or preserve it in lakes, to water lower land as occasion may require. Reservoirs, ponds, water-courses, and dykes are more generally in a progress of decay than improvement. The rotation of crops which engrosses so much the attention of enlightened cultivators in Europe, is not understood in Hindustan, and a course of husbandry extending beyond the year was never dreamed of by a Bengal farmer. Neither is he, in the succession within the year, guided by any choice of an article adapted to restore fertility to land impoverished by a former crop. The Indian cultivator allows his field a lay, but never a fallow. The cattle kept for labour and subsistence are mostly fed on small commons, or other pasturage, or at home on cut grass. The cattle for breeding and for the dairy are grazed in numerous herds in the forests or on the downs. The dung, in place of being applied to the fields, is carefully collected for fuel. The Bengal farmer restricts the use of manure to sugar-cane, mulberry, tobacco, poppy, and some other articles.

In Bengal many tanks have been dug, which are frequently used in supplying the inhabitants with water, not only for domestic purposes, but also for irrigation. But ostentation, and the love of fame, have in some parts increased the number and size of these excavations to a destructive extent, no one being interested in their repair, which is not productive of any reputation. Almost every tank, therefore, is soon choked up with aquatic plants, and becomes a source of vile smells, bad water, and distempers; and there being many more tanks than are requisite, much land is thereby lost to agriculture. In some parts of the province the evil has reached to such a pitch, that the digging of a new tank ought to be prohibited, unless the necessity for its construction be previously established, and security ought to be taken for its being kept in proper repair, and free from noxious weeds. At present the only measure taken by the natives for this purpose in large tanks, is to place a quantity of mercury at the bottom of the tank on its first formation, and although numberless examples of the inefficacy of this absurd expedient daily occur, the excavators continue perfectly credulous.

The simple tools employed by the native in every art are so coarse, and apparently so inadequate to his purpose, that it creates surprise how he can effect his undertaking; but the long continuance of feeble efforts accomplishes what, compared with the means, appears impracticable. The plough is the instrument that stands most in need of improvement. The readiness with which the Indian can turn from his usual occupation to any other branch of the same art, or to a new profession, is characteristic of his country, and the success of his earliest efforts, in any employment new to him, is daily remarked with wonder. The want of capital in manufactures and agriculture prevents the subdivision of labour, every manufacturer and artist working on his own account, conducts the whole process of his art, from the formation of his tools to the sale of his production. Every labourer and artizan who has frequently occasion to recur to the labours of the field, becomes a husbandman.

A cultivator in Bengal who employs servants, employs one for each plough,

and pays him monthly wages, which on an average do not exceed one rupee per mouth, and in a very cheap district, the wages are so low as half a rupee; but the task on the medium of one-third of an acre per day is completed by noon. The cattle are then left to the herdsman's care, and the ploughman follows other occupations during the remainder of the day. Generally he cultivates some land on his own account, and this he commonly rents from his employer for a payment in kind If the herd be sufficiently numerous to occupy one person, a servant is entertained, and receives in food, money, and clothing to the value of one rupee and a-half per mensem. The plough itself costs less than a rupee The cattle employed in husbandry are of the smallest kind, the cost on an average not being more than five rupees each The price of labour may be computed from the usual hire of a plough with its yoke and oxen, which may be stated on the medium to be about 4*d* per day The cleaning of the rice is executed with a wooden pestle and mortar, the allowance for husking it being nearly uniform, the performer contracting to deliver back five-eighths of the weight in clean rice, the surplus, with the chaff or bran, paying for the labour Five quarters of rice per acre are reckoned a large produce, and a return of fifteen for one on the seed

As a middle course of husbandry, two yearly harvests may be assumed from each field: one of white corn, and another of pulse, oil seed, or millet. The price of corn fluctuates much more here than in Europe, and has a considerable influence on the value of most other articles, though it cannot regulate the price of all When the crops of corn happen to be abundant, it is not only cheap, but wants a ready market, and as the payment of the rent is regulated by the season of the harvest, the cultivator thereby sustains considerable detriment. In Bengal, where the revenue of the state has had the form of land rent, the management of the public finances has a more direct influence on agriculture than any other branch of the administration. The price of rice has rather diminished than increased since British conquest, nor has Bengal suffered a famine of any severity since A D. 1770.

The orchard of this province is what chiefly attaches the peasant to his native soil, although the seasons in Bengal are not favourable for the production of many kinds of fruit, owing to the rains occupying great part of the summer, and the heat of the spring is not sufficient to bring them to maturity before the rainy season commences. But he feels a superstitious veneration for the trees planted by his ancestors, and derives comfort and profit from their fruit Orchards of mangoe trees diversify the plain in every part of Bengal, and the palmyra abounds in Bahar. The cocoa-nut thrives in those parts of Bengal that are not remote from the sea, and the date tree grows every where, but especially in Bahar. Plantations of areca are common in the central parts of Bengal, the bassia thrives even in the poorest soils, and abounds in the hilly districts. Its inflated corollas are excellent and nutritious, and yield by distillation an intoxicating spirit. The oil expressed from its seeds, in mountainous tracts, is a common subtitute for butter. Clumps of bamboos abound and flourish as long as they are not too hastily thinned. This gigantic grass is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth. Its greatest height (from forty to fifty feet) is completed in a single year, and during the second, its wood acquires all the hardness and elasticity which render it so useful. They supply the peasant with materials for building and may also yield him a profit, as it is probable a single acre of thriving bamboos produces more wood than ten of any other tree.

Potatoes have been introduced into Bengal, and apparently with the most beneficial effect. The quantity procured by Europeans at almost every season of the year proves that they

are not unsuited to the climate, and the small potatoe is little if at all inferior to that of England; but the crop being less abundant, in the market this root is generally dearer than rice. The watery insipidity of tropical vegetables, is a circumstance universally remarked by Europeans on their arrival in India. Asparagus, cauliflower, and other esculent plants, are raised for European consumption, but they are comparatively tasteless.

The profits of cattle consist in the increase of stock, and the milk of buffaloes, which are grazed at a very small expense. The milk of the latter is universally preferred by the Bengalese and most other Hindostanies, to that of cows, which is comparatively little used, although to a European taste the first is insipid, and the butter made from it disagreeable. Cattle constitute a considerable portion of the peasant's wealth, and the profits of stock would be much greater did the consumption of animal food take off the barren cows, and oxen that have passed their prime. This is not sufficient to render sheep an object of general attention. Their wool supplies the home consumption of blankets, but it is too coarse, and brings too low a price to afford a large profit on this species of stock.

The native Bengally horse or tattoo, is a thin, ill-shaped, vicious, and every way contemptible animal, and is never used in a team, bullocks being better adapted for that species of labour. The Bengally cart is nearly as bad as their plough, with clumsy wheels and axletrees, which never being oiled, make a loud creaking noise; nor can the native driver be prevailed on to alter what was the custom of his forefathers. The elephants, camels, and oxen attached to the commissariat, are kept in excellent condition. The buffaloes are generally of a dirty black colour, with long semicircular horns, which instead of standing or bending forward, are laid backwards on the neck, so that when he attacks he is obliged to put his snout between his forelegs, to enable him to point his horns forward. The Bengalese sheep are naturally a thin, lank, and diminutive breed, of a dark grey colour, beside which, a European sheep seems a monster in size; but when fattened for table, the mutton equals the best of Europe, and greatly surpasses the generality.

Pariah dogs infest the streets of all the towns in Bengal, and the approach of evening is announced by the howling of jackalls, which then quit their retreats in the jungles. Apes and monkeys swarm in the woods, and sometimes plunder the fruit shops of a village. Being a sacred animal, the natives often voluntarily supply their wants, and seldom injure them. The Brahminy or sacred bull of the Hindoos, also rambles over the country without interruption. He is caressed and pampered by the people, to feed him being deemed a meritorious act of religion. The crow, kite, mayana (or grakle) hop about the dwellings of the Bengalese with a familiarity and sense of safety unknown in Europe. Gigantic herons (ardea ardgala) are seen in great numbers, and from their solemn military strut, are named adjutants by the European soldiers; toads, snakes, frogs, lizards, and other reptiles, which are their food, abound.

The abundance of fish affords a supply almost attainable by every class, and in the Ganges and its innumerable branches are many different kinds. Their plenty at some seasons is so great that they become the food of the poorest natives, who are said to contract diseases from a too liberal indulgence. The smallest kind are all equally acceptable in a curry, the standing dish of every native family throughout Hindostan; and in fact, with a pilau, comprehends their whole art of cookery. The bickty or cockup, is an excellent fish; as is also the sable fish, which is uncommonly rich, and eats best as a tamarind pickle. But the highest flavoured fish, not only in Bengal but in the whole world, is the mangoe fish, thus named from its appearing in the

rivers during the mangoe season, when it is a favourite dish (especially in roe) at every European table It is remarkable that the mangoe fish, although a sea fish, and found exclusively within the influence of the tides, has never been observed in the Krishna, Godavery, or any of the Deccany rivers, nor in fact any where along the bay except in Bengal and the rivers of Ava. The sable fish is also found in the Cavery. Mullet abound in all rivers within a certain distance of the sea, and may be killed with small shot as they swim against the stream with their heads partly out of the water. Oysters are procured from the southern coast of Chittagong, not so large, but fully as well flavoured as those of Europe; turtle of a good quality from Cheduba and the coast of Aracan Porpoises abound in all the large rivers within 200 miles of the sea, and alligators in almost every river, where there are also incredible quantities of small turtle, which are eaten by the inferior castes.

The staple productions of Bengal for exportation are sugar, tobacco, silk, cotton, and indigo.

Tobacco, it is probable, was unknown to India as well as to Europe before the discovery of America It appears from a proclamation of the Emperor Jehanghire, mentioned by that prince in his own memoirs, that it was introduced by Europeans, either during his own reign (the beginning of the seventeenth century) or in that of his father Acber The Hindoos have names for the plant in their own languages, but these names, not excepting the Sanscrit, seem to be corrupted from the European denomination of the plant, and not to be found in ancient compositions. The practice, however, of inhaling the smoke of hemp-leaves, and of other intoxicating drugs, is of long standing, so that tobacco, when once introduced, soon became general throughout India, and the plant is now one of universal cultivation throughout Hindostan.

The sugar-cane, the name of which was scarcely known to the ancient inhabitants of Europe, grew luxuriantly throughout Bengal in the remotest times. From India the plant was carried to Arabia, and from thence to Europe and Africa. From Benares to Rungpoor, and from the borders of Assam to Cuttack, there is scarcely a district in the province where the sugar-cane does not flourish. It thrives most especially in Benares, Bahar, Rungpoor, Birbhoom, Burdwan, and Midnapoor, is successfully cultivated in all, and there seems to be no other bounds to the possible production of sugar in Bengal than the limits of the demand, and consequent vent for it. The growth for home consumption and inland trade is immense, and it only needs encouragement to provide for Europe also, being cheaply produced and frugally manufactured.

Cotton is cultivated in Bengal, but the enormous quantity exported by sea is almost exclusively the produce of the northern provinces and of the Deccan, which also furnish a considerable portion of that used for internal consumption. The names of cotton in most European languages are obviously derived from the Arabic word kutn, pronounced cootn. Some sorts are indigenous to America, others are certainly natives of India, which has at all times been the country most celebrated for cotton manufactures.

Europe was anciently supplied with silk through the medium of Indian commerce The dead language of India (the Sanscrit) has names for the silk-worm and manufactured silk, and among the numerous tribes of Hindoos derived from the intermixture of the original races, there are two classes mentioned whose appropriate occupation was the feeding of silk-worms, and the spinning of silk. A person who feeds his own silk-worms has full employment for his family. The rearing of them is principally confined to a section of Burdwan, and to the vicinity of the Bhagirathi and great Ganges, from the fork of these rivers, for about 100 miles down their streams. The sta-

tions where the East-India Company's investment of silk is mostly procured are Commercolly, Jungeypoor, Bauleah, Malda, Radanagore, Rungpoor, and Cossimbazar. There is also a considerable quantity of silk obtained from wild silk-worms, and from those reared on other plants besides the mulberry. Much silk of this kind supplies home consumption; much is imported from the countries situated on the north-west border of Bengal, and the southern frontier of Benares; much is exported, wrought and unwrought, to the western parts of India, and some enters into manufactures much esteemed in Europe. Four crops of mulberry-leaves are obtained from the same field in the course of each year—the best in December.

The manufacture of indigo appears to have been known and practised in India from the earliest period From this country, whence it derives its name, Europe was anciently supplied with it, until the produce of America engrossed the market. The spirited exertions of a few individuals restored this commerce to Bengal, solely by the superior qualities of their manufactures; for so far as regards the culture no material change has taken place in the practice of the native.

The principal food of the great body of people who inhabit this province is rice, of which, from the fertility of the soil, the combined result of an ardent sun, and the saturating periodical rains, two crops are obtained annually, besides a variety of other cerealia and pulse. The first harvest is gathered about the end of August; the second, which is the greatest, in December; the lesser articles from February until the end of April; so that the land yields its fruits almost the whole year. In general, the supply is so abundant as to render Bengal the granary of India, and it is at very distant intervals that a season is not bountiful. The natives, from their indolent and improvident habits, never practised the precaution of keeping a stock of grain in reserve, the knowledge of which, under a native government, would have exposed them to its extortions. When a season of drought, therefore, intervenes, the ground is parched up, and a scarcity ensues, which is aggravated to the poor by the artifices of the grain-dealers: should a deficiency of rain continue through two succeeding seasons, the grain in store would be wholly unequal to the supply of a people whose subsistence is almost entirely vegetable.

The exportation of grain from the corn districts, and the returns of salt, constitutes the principal objects of internal trade. The importation of cotton from the western provinces, and the exchange of betel-nut, together with a few articles of less note, complete the supply for internal consumption. Piece-goods, silk, saltpetre, opium, sugar, and indigo, formerly passed almost wholly through the Company's hands; but now all sorts of traffic are much more open, and practised generally by every description of merchant. Grain, the internal commerce of which is entirely conducted by the natives, supplies the consumption of the cities and the export trade of Bengal; but, except in cities, the great mass of the population is every where subsisted from the produce of their immediate neighbourhood.

Plain muslins, distinguished by their various names, according to the closeness or fineness of their texture, as well as flowered, striped, or checkered, denominated from their patterns, are fabricated chiefly in the province of Dacca. The manufacture of the thinnest sort of that muslin is almost confined to that quarter; other kinds, more closely woven, are manufactured on the western side of the Delta of the Ganges, and a different sort, distinguished by more rigid texture, does not seem to be limited to any district. Coarse muslins in the shape of turbans, handkerchiefs, &c. are made in almost every district, and the northern parts of Benares afford both plain and flowered mus-

lins, which are not ill adapted for common use, though, like the European article, incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca

Under the general name of calicoes are included various sorts of cotton cloth, such as baftaes, cossaes, &c, to which no English names have as yet been affixed; they are found every where, and are, for the most part, known in Europe by their Indian denominations. Pack-thread is woven in sackcloth in many places, more especially on the northern frontier of Bengal, where it is employed as clothing by the mountaineers. A sort of canvas is made from cotton in the neighbourhood of Chittagong, Patna, and some other places, and blankets for common use are made every where A coarse cotton cloth, dyed red with cheap materials, is chiefly manufactured in the centre of the Doab; other sorts, more especially blue, are prepared for inland commerce and exportation; both fine and coarse calicoes receive a topical dyeing, with permanent and fugitive colours. The zemindary of Benares, the city of Patna, and the neighbourhood of Calcutta, are the principal seats of this manufacture of chintzes, which appears to be an original art in India, invented long ago, and brought to a perfection not yet surpassed in Europe. Dimities of various kinds, and damask linen, are made at Dacca, Patna, Taunda, and other places.

The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk and taffeta, both plain and flowered; tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the manufacture of Benares; plain gauzes are woven in the western and southern corners of Bengal. The weaving of mixed goods of silk and cotton flourishes chiefly at Maulda, at Boglipoor, and at some towns in the district of Burdwan; a considerable quantity of filature silk is exported to the west of India, and much is sold at Mirzapoor, passing thence to Central Hindostan.

Tusser, a wild silk, is procured in abundance from countries bordering on Bengal, and also from districts included within its limits. The wild silk-worms are there found on various sorts of trees, common in the forests of Silhet, Assam, and the Deccan; the cones are large, but sparingly covered with silk, which in colour and lustre is greatly inferior to that of the domesticated insect. Its cheapness renders it useful in the fabrication of coarse silk; the production may be greatly increased by encouragement, and a very large quantity might be exported at a moderate expense It might be applied in Europe to the preparation of silk goods, and, mixed with wool or cotton, form, as it does in India, a beautiful and acceptable article of dress. The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of the Bahar province, under which head (as also that of opium) it will be found described.

The export of hides from Bengal may be greatly increased. Including buffaloes, it is calculated that the Company's old provinces (Bengal, Bahar, and Benares) contain fifty millions of cattle; but until recently the demand was so small, that the currier frequently neglected to take the hide off the cattle that died a natural death About 1797 some Europeans engaged in the tanning of leather, and the manufacture of boots and shoes, which although not so strong and water-proof as the British, answer so well that they have greatly reduced the exportation The natives have also arrived at considerable perfection in the fabrication of saddles, harness, and military accoutrements, and other articles composed principally of leather An excellent canvass is now manufactured in Calcutta, and sold much cheaper than that imported from Europe. Now that freight is reduced to its minimum, corn of various kinds, and more especially rice, admits of exportation, as also rum, little inferior to that of Jamaica, with liquorice and ginger, which last is annually exported in increasing quantities.

It is extremely probable that an-

notto, madder, coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and even tea, would thrive in British India, which now comprehends every variety of climate. The plant from the seeds of which annotto is prepared is already cultivated in Bengal, and coffee plants have thriven in botanical and private gardens. Madder is a native of the mountainous regions bordering on Bengal, and under the name of munjeet is already a considerable article of export. Various drugs used in dyeing are sent to England, such as galls, turmeric, safflower, and also myrobalans, which are here used in preference to galls. Morinda roots, which give a permanent colour to cotton, and blossoms of the nyctanches, which give a durable colour to silk.

Gum-arabic, and many other sorts of gums and resins for manufactures, are the produce of trees that grow spontaneously in Bengal, besides a multitude of medicinal drugs and gums, which abound in Hindostan and the adjacent countries. Vegetable oil, more particularly linseed, might be supplied from these provinces, which are also adapted for the cultivation of flax. Tincal, brought from the table-land of Tibet, is among the exports from Bengal, and vegetable and mineral alkalies may hereafter become a considerable article of commerce. The fossil alkali is found in abundance, and the forests of Bengal are capable of furnishing potash in large quantities. The preparation of sal-ammoniac might be advantageously connected with the manufacture of saltpetre.

Besides the articles above enumerated, having reference principally to Bengal, the Indian markets furnish some previously imported from China, the Eastern Isles, and Gulf of Persia, aloes, assafœtida, benzoin, camphor, cardamoms, cassia lignea, cassia, and cassia buds, arrangoes, cowries, China root, cinnabar, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, elephants' teeth, rattans, mother-o'-pearl, pepper, quicksilver, rhubarb, sago, scammony, senna, and saffron; and might supply anise, coriander, cumminseed, and many other commodities which would occupy too much room to enumerate. Of hemp and flax, in all their varities, and also of the different substitutes for these articles, Bengal produces a greater abundance than any other country. The true hemp is found in many parts, but is little used by the natives, except for the seed oil as a medicine, and for an intoxicating ingredient, often mixed with the tobacco of the hooka.

The exports to Europe and the United States of America still constitute the most considerable portion of the foreign commerce of Bengal. The trade to China and the eastward now takes precedence of that to the coast of Coromandel, which last has dwindled away since the conquest of Mysore and settlement of the Carnatic, events that have emancipated Madras, with respect to grain, from her former dependence on Bengal.

Owing to its admirable facility of transportation by water the internal commerce of Bengal is very great, but, as may be supposed in a country so productive and thickly populated, by far the most important interchange is in the article of rice. Of this grain in Bengal there is annually a great variation of price, the difference between the months of July and December respectively being very remarkable, and a source of great profit to opulent speculators, but to the indigent classes of cultivators of infinite damage. These last obtain rice for seed, and for the consumption of their families, either by a ruinous mortgage of the ensuing crop, or at an exorbitant rate of interest in the month of July, a period when the price is almost uniformly at the highest. In January, when the principal harvest is gathered, they are under the immediate necessity of selling the produce of their fields to discharge the instalments then due, as they have neither means to convey the grain to a distant market, nor resources to enable them to postpone its sale until a more favourable pe-

riod. They are thus compelled at once to glut a confined market with the whole produce of their village, where the only purchasers are the rich speculators, who are consequently enabled to fix the prices at their own discretion. The evil is less felt in the vicinity of great towns or navigable rivers, nor does the Calcutta price essentially vary at those periods which in the interior of the province are the cheapest and dearest of the year. An investigation, made in 1815, tended to prove that the ten years from 1793 to 1803 were collectively cheaper than the ten preceding and following, and that the price of rice and similar articles has not experienced any permanent augmentation since A.D. 1761. Since 1793, the average prices of ploughing cattle have experienced a rise of seventy-five per cent.; but the hire of coolies, or day labourers, in the country, has not altered, being still four and a half and five pons of cowries per day. The rise of wages paid to labourers by natives who cultivate their own lands has been, on the other hand, considerable. In 1793, an able servant received about four rupees per annum with his clothing and diet, whereas in 1814 they received six and eight rupees yearly, and in some situations even more. Near Calcutta in harvest time, the usual price of 640 seers of paddy or rice in the husk, is five rupees five annas.

The inland navigation employs a great many vessels, and it is interesting to note, at a mart of great resort, the various constructions of boats assembled from different quarters, each adapted to the nature of the rivers they usually traverse. The flat clinker-built vessels of the western districts would be ill adapted to the wide and stormy navigation of the lower Ganges. The unwieldy bulk of the lofty boats used on the Ganges from Patna to Calcutta, would not suit the rapid and shallow rivers of the western tracts, nor the narrow creeks that the vessels pass in the eastern navigation; and the low but deep boats of these districts are not adapted to the shoals of the western rivers. In one navigation, wherein the vessels descend with the stream and return with the track rope, their construction consults neither aptitude for the sail nor for the oar. In the other, wherein boats are assisted by the stream of the creek, and opposed by the current of the next, as in the Sunderbunds, and under banks impracticable for the tracking rope, their principal dependence is on the oar, for a winding course in narrow channels permits no reliance on the sail. Often grounding in the shallows, vessels with keels would be unsafe, and all Bengalese boat constructions want this addition so necessary for sailing.

These useful vessels are also very cheaply found. A circular board tied to a bamboo forms an oar, a wooden triangular frame, loaded with some heavy substance, is the anchor; a few bamboos lashed together supply the mast; a cane of the same species serves as a yard for the sail, which is made of coarse sackcloth; some from the twine made of the stem of the rushy crotularia, or of the hibiscus. The trees of the country afford resins to pay the vessels, and a platform of mats, thatched with straw, supplies the stead of a deck to shelter the merchandize. The vessels are navigated with equal frugality; the boatmen receive little more than their food, which is most commonly supplied in grain, together with an inconsiderable allowance of money, for the purchase of salt and the supply of other petty wants. Fifty years ago, Major Rennell estimated the number of boatmen employed on the inland navigation of Bengal and Bahar at thirty thousand, but ten times that number would apparently be nearer the mark in such a region of rivers, where almost every cultivator and fisherman is also occasionally a navigator.

In the land carriage the owners of the cattle are also the principal traffickers, oftener purchasing at one market to sell at another, than let-

ting their cattle to hire to resident merchants. They transport their merchandize on oxen trained to burthen; sometimes, but not frequently, on horses of the tattoo breed, and still more rarely on buffaloes. The latter, although more docile are more sluggish and slower travellers than the ox, and do not bear a much greater burthen; besides which they are too fond of lying down in the many waters they have to wade through with their loads.

The highways throughout Bengal, except in the immediate vicinity of the principal civil and military stations, are not generally in a condition for wheel carriages or for distant journies. At present the beaten pathway through Bengal directs the traveller, but no artificial road or any accommodation, and in the rainy season his progress is almost wholly barred. The total decay of the public roads must be ascribed to the want of substantial and durable materials for their construction. The Bengal government have completed a road from Calcutta to Benares, but even this road, for the space of about seventy miles through the plains of Bengal, is not passable for wheeled carriages during several months of the year. A road to Juggernauth has been recently constructed, and an officer is now employed in opening a direct communication between Calcutta and Nagpoor, by a road intended to traverse the wilds and fastnesses of Gundwana, which have for ages formed an impenetrable barrier between Bengal and the Deccan.

As yet Bengal may be said to have but one harbour of maritime export, which is Calcutta, although square-rigged vessels of moderate burthen occasionally load rice in some of the Sunderbund rivers, and vessels of large dimensions are built at, and sail from Islamabad, the capital of Chittagong. But the aggregate is insignificant compared with the commerce of the great metropolis, under which head some further details will be found.

The original manner in which all internal commerce seems to have been conducted in Bengal was at hauts or open markets, and this practice is still very prevalent. These hauts are held on certain days only, and are resorted to by petty venders and traders, who wish to dispose of their commodities by retail. They are usually established in open plains, where a flag-staff is erected, to the vicinity of which the farmer brings the produce of his lands, the mechanic of his workshop, and the fisherman of his net. On the festivals of certain Hindoo gods, and of persons reputed saints by the Mahomedans, a great number of persons assemble at spots esteemed peculiarly sacred, and traders embrace these opportunities of finding a market for their goods, in supplying the wants of the multitude. In Bengal a bazar is a daily market, where things in common use are regularly sold, and it is not unusual to have them in a haut, where a number of petty venders besides the established shopkeepers frequent them. In gunges or bunders the chief commodities sold are grain and the necessaries of life, and they often include bazars and hauts, where the articles are sold by retail and in great variety. It is a very common termination for the names of towns in Bengal, where it is usually restricted to places that have water-carriage. Dokan a shop, and dokandar a shopkeeper, are Persian words; but until the arrival of the Mahomedans such establishments were probably very rare, or did not at all exist in Bengal, where a vender sitting in the open air, surrounded by his goods, was the original native manner of selling commodities; and in many parts of the province the number of shops is still remarkably small

Out of Calcutta, and the two large cities of Dacca and Moorshedabad, the usual currency of Bengal is silver and cowries; gold seldom appears, and copper has never been introduced. Some years ago gold in the provincial tracts was abundant, but has since become very scarce, which

is a fortunate result for the poor, who were greatly cheated in this article by the money-changers. The most common silver currency is the new milled coinage of Calcutta, of which, however, a considerable portion becomes speedily depreciated. In the country there is still a considerable number of the old unmilled coinage, which is subjected to a heavy batta or exchange; but there all minor transactions, and even some of considerable magnitude, are settled by cowries, which shell forms an excellent medium of exchange among many nations widely separated from each other, and has the recommendation of being altogther inimitable.

Throughout the province there is no uniformity of weights and measures, which not only vary in every market, but are different in the same market for different kinds of goods. There are even different weights for the same species, rice being sold by one weight and bought by another. Neither are there any stamps on the weights, which are usually bits of stone. There is no denomination of weight greater than a maund, which is subdivided into forty seers. In Bengal a factory maund weighs seventy-four pounds ten ounces, and a factory seer one pound thirteen ounces; but the bazar maund is ten per cent. heavier, and equals eighty-two pounds two ounces avoirdupois. Liquids are sold by the seer or maund, that is, by vessels supposed to contain these weights. The grain measures are of basket-work in the shape of a hemisphere, and are supposed, when heaped, to contain a certain quantity of rice in the husk

During the Hindoo government, bankers, or dealers in money, were probably of small importance, and low in rank; but on the Mahomedan conquest, commerce seems to have increased, and to facilitate its operations bankers were introduced from the west of India. During the Mahomedan sway the revenue was remitted to Moorshedabad by these bankers, but since the British ascendancy this branch of profit has been lost to them in the provincial parts, where they are now chiefly employed by the landholders in keeping their rents, paying the revenue, and taking care of the surplus. Potdars, or money-changers, are a very numerous class, but many of them, having no shop, sit in the open air with heaps of cowries placed before them. In the more rural tracts the money-changer goes to market with a bag of cowries on his head, if a rich man, with a loaded ox, which, if strong, may carry to the value of 150 rupees. All the early time of the market he sells cowries for silver to the people, and in the evening the various hucksters bring back their cowries and exchange them for silver, paying a batta in exchange each way to the potdar. In Calcutta cowries are reckoned thus, but in the country parts they are much cheaper:

4 cowries ...... 1 gunda.
20 gundas ...... 1 pon.
32 pons .... 1 current rupee, less than 2s (2,560 cowries).

It is customary with the money-changers to lend to all servants who have monthly wages, and at the end of the month, when the wages become due, they return the loan in silver, for all this class, if trusted, anticipate their income. Labourers among the natives receive their daily pay in cowries, the daily markets, even of Europeans, are made with these shells, they are distributed in alms, used on all occasions, and are, in fact, an excellent unforgeable circulating medium, and a proof of cheapness in whatever country they form the common currency The natives of course become well acquainted with their quality, and a Bengalese huckster refuses as stoutly a cowry with a hole in it, as in England a shopkeeper does a Birmingham shilling

The inhabitants of Bengal Proper are certainly numerous in proportion to the tillage and manufactures that employ their industry. It has, however, met with checks, as happened in 1770, when it is supposed nearly

one-fifth perished by famine. In 1784 the same calamity prevailed, but in a much less degree; in 1787 many lives were lost in the eastern districts by inundation, and in 1788 by a partial scarcity; but since the period last mentioned, an interval of thirty-nine years, famine and even scarcity have been unknown, a fact probably not to be paralleled in Asiatic history. Various estimates of the total population have been made at different times, but until 1801, during the administration of the Marquis Wellesley, no approach to actual investigation was ever attempted. An inquiry of this description requires to be conducted with peculiar delicacy, the natives in general being averse to even the semblance of innovation, and to any new arrangement that tends to bring them more immediately under the observation of the magistrate, or to impose on them either additional duties or expense. Neither can accurate returns be expected from the zemindars, who are jealous of the intentions and views of government. Different indirect expedients have in consequence been resorted to, such as, a computation from the quantity of salt consumed, which, being a monopoly, could be ascertained with tolerable precision

In 1801, by the directions of the Marquis Wellesley, then governor-general, the Board of Revenue in Bengal circulated various questions on statistical subjects to the magistrates and collectors of the different divisions, with the view of ascertaining the population and resources of their respective districts. The returns to these were, with some valuable exceptions, rather hastily made, and without due consideration of the subject; but it is remarkable, that all these public functionaries, either from the fear of appearing to exaggerate, or from the novelty of the subject, kept greatly within the real amount, which we shall exemplify by a comparison of their estimates with others subsequently made, and under more favourable circumstances, by Dr. Francis Buchanan. In 1807, 1808, and 1809, this gentleman was deputed by the government to survey and report on the Bengal districts of Rungpoor, Dinagepoor, and Purneah, in the prosecution of which the public officers of government, European and native, were directed to render him every assistance, and to furnish him with every requisite record and document.

The results of his survey were most voluminous, and minute reports on the resources and actual condition of each district, accompanied by statistical tables of the most elaborate description, comprehending not only the population of the whole, but of every police subdivision and town of any importance or magnitude, and on the whole, he was of opinion that the total amount, as given in his tables, was not materially wrong, although they might err in particular instances Dr. Buchanan was selected by the government for this deputation, on account of the well-earned reputation he had already acquired for general knowledge, soundness of judgment, and habits of laborious research, and certainly no person of equal abilities, with the exception of Mr. Bayley, ever directed so much attention to this particular object, or executed it with so many collateral advantages. The result of his investigation, however, gives so enormous a population, when compared with prior estimates, as utterly to astonish the mind, yet his conclusions succeeded a most severe examination of all the existing circumstances, while others were made, mostly after very superficial consideration, and some were evidently the effusions of mere fancy and conjecture. When we add to this, that Mr. Bayley's subsequent investigation of the population of Burdwan, in 1814, tended completely to corroborate Dr. Buchanan's calculations, we must think them entitled to a decided preference. To render the subject more intelligible, we subjoin the respective estimates of the magistrate, collector, and Dr. Francis Buchanan.

Rungpoor District:	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,000,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	400,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1809	2,735,000
Dinagepoor District:	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	700,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,000,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1808	3,000,000
Purneah District:	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,400,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,450,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1810	2,900,000

We now proceed to give a detailed statement of the number of inhabitants in Bengal, Bahar, and Benares, extracted from the returns of the magistrates and collectors in 1801, with the exception of the three districts above-mentioned, and Boglipoor and Bahar, which are taken from Dr. Francis Buchanan's statistical tables, and of Burdwan from Mr. Bayley's essay in the Asiatic Researches. It will immediately strike the reader, that if the population of the other districts be as much underrated as of those surveyed by Dr. Buchanan and Mr. Bayley, great as the sum-total is, it might be almost doubled.

Population of the Province of Bengal:

The twenty-four pergunnahs, including Calcutta, 1801		1,625,000
Midnapoor district, 1801		1,500,000
Hooghly district, 1801		1,000,000
Burdwan district, 1814		1,450,000
Jessore district, 1801		1,200,000
Nuddea district, 1801		800,000
		7,575,000
Dacca Jelalpoor district and city, 1801	1,140,000	
Backergunge district, 1801	926,000	
Chittagong district, 1801	1,200,000	
Tipera district, 1801	750,000	
Mymunsingh district, 1801	1,360,000	
Silhet district, 1801	500,000	
		5,876,000
Moorshedabad district and city, 1801	1,020,000	
Birbhoom district, 1801	700,000	
Rajeshahy district, 1801	1,500,000	
Rungpoor district, 1809	2,735,000	
Dinagepoor district, 1808	3,000,000	
Purneah district, 1810	2,900,000	
		11,855,000
Total Bengal		25,306,000

Population of Bahar Province:

Boglipoor district, 1811	2,755,000	
Bahar district, 1812	2,019,000	
Sarun district, 1801	1,200,000	
Shahabad district, 1801	2,000,000	
Tirhoot district, 1801	2,000,000	
Ramghur district, by estimate, 1801	1,000,000	
		10,974,000
Benares province, 1801, by estimate		3,000,000
Total population of the British old provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Benares, containing 162,000 square miles		39,679,000

Bengal comprehends within its geographical limits three large cities, Calcutta, Dacca, and Moorshehabad, besides many prosperous inland trading towns, such as Hooghly, Serajegunge, Bogwangola, and Cossimbazar, each containing a great population, but of which no authentic returns have as yet been published. The following is the number of inhabitants reported on very probable grounds to be resident in the cities and towns respectively, to which the numbers are attached:—

Calcutta	500,000
Dacca	180,000
Moorshedabad	150,000
Burdwan	53,000
Chandernagore	41,377
Purneah	33,000
Rajamahal	30,000
Dinagepoor	28,000
Naraingunge	20,000
Malda	18,000
Gour	18,000
Chandercona	18,145

Villages of from 100 to 500 inhabitants are astonishingly numerous, and in some parts form a continued chain of many miles along the banks of the rivers, similar to what we find described in the most populous tracts of the Chinese empire. While passing them on the inland navigation, it is pleasing to view the cheerful bustle and crowded population by land and water; men, old women, children, birds and beasts, all mixed and intimate, evincing a consciousness of safety and security from oppression, to be seen in no native governed territory. Nor have the inhabitants of Bengal any real evils to complain of, except such as originate from their own propensity to litigation, and from the occasional predatory visits of gang robbers and river pirates. To protect them from the last, partly owing to their own want of energy, the exertions of the government and their servants in the magistracy have been most strenuous, and continued with such increasing vigour, that there is at last a prospect of this desirable object being accomplished. With respect to the first, the Bengalese are, from some inherent peculiarity, extremely prone to legal disputation; and, politically pacific, seem socially and domestically martial. Among them war seems frittered into law, and the ferocious passions dwarfed down to the bickering and snarling of the hut and village. In this vociferation they are greatly assisted by the females, who after the age of thirty generally turn termagants, and become agitated by a furious spirit of discord, which they vent in such loud, virulent, and indecent railings as are no where else to be paralleled.

In the revenue system of Bengal, the ryot, or cultivator, is described as a tenant paying rent, and his superior as a landlord or landholder; but, strictly speaking, his payment heretofore was a contribution to the state, levied by officers named zemindars, standing between him and the government. In the rule for the division of the crop, whether under special engagements or by custom, their proportions are known, *viz.*

Half to the landlord, and half to the tenant.

One-third to the landlord, and two-thirds to the tenant.

The standard for the regulation of rates has been lost, but we learn from other sources, that the assessment was limited not to exceed in the whole a fourth part of the actual gross produce of the soil. In early times the demands of the Hindoo sovereigns were still more moderate. The Mahabarat states that the prince was to levy a fiftieth part of the produce of mines, and a tenth of corn. Menu and other legislators authorize the sovereign to exact an eighth, a tenth, or a twelfth of grain, according to circumstances, and a sixth of the clear annual produce of trees.

With respect to the much-disputed nature of landed property in Bengal, in one point of view, the zemindars, as descendants of the ancient independent Rajas, seem to have been tributary princes, in another light only the officers of government; but probably their real character partook of the nature of both. This, however,

must be obviously restricted to Rajas who possessed great zemindaries. Numerous landholders subordinate to these, as well as others independent of them, cannot evidently be traced to a similar origin, and the Mahomedan sovereigns and governors of Bengal seem to have been altogether indifferent with respect to the mutations of landed property, provided the new proprietor paid his revenue

The zemindars are now acknowledged, for various reasons, and from considerations of expediency, which decided the question, as proprietors of the soil. Yet it has been admitted from high authority, that anciently the sovereign was proprietor of the soil; that the zemindars were officers of revenue, justice, and police, and that their office was frequently, but not necessarily, hereditary To collect and assess the contributions regulated as they were by local customs or particular agreements, but varying at the same time with the necessities of the state, was the business of the zemindar, as a permanent, if not as a hereditary officer For the due execution of his charge, he was checked by permanent and hereditary officers of revenue and account

Various changes have taken place since the British conquest, in the mode of collecting the land revenue of Bengal. From 1767 to 1769 the collection was entirely under Mahomed Reza Khan. Mr. Verelst, in 1769 sent supervisors into several districts. In 1770 two boards of revenue were appointed, one at Moorshedabad and one at Patna. In 1772 Mr Hastings, in consequence of instructions from home, deprived Mahomed Reza of all power, and made Calcutta the seat of fiscal government. In 1773 the collectors were withdrawn, and six provincial councils appointed. In 1781 these councils were withdrawn, collectors again deputed, and a supreme board of revenue appointed in Calcutta, which still continues. The total amount of the land revenue collected from 1772 to 1789 was remarkably equal, averaging about 295 lacks of current rupees

In 1793, during the administration of Lord Cornwallis, the territorial revenue of the Company's old provinces (Bengal, Bahar, and Benares), which had before fluctuated, were permanently and irrevocably fixed, at a certain valuation of the property moderately assessed; but this permanent settlement has not yet been introduced into the territories subsequently obtained by cession and conquest. The mighty mass of papers, with which the agitation of this question crowded the East-India Company's records, proves the ability, labour, and anxiety with which it was discussed

An account of the Indian debts and credits on the 30th April 1822:—

Amount of bond, register, and other debts bearing interest....		£31,623,780
Arrears and debts not bearing interest		6,966,877
Gross amount of the territorial debt on the 30th April 1822...		£38,590,657
Deduct Territorial Assets ·		
Cash in the public treasuries	£10,634,459	
Bills receivable	449,475	
Stores	3,027,818	
Debts owing to Government	6,412,023	
Salt, opium, grain, &c in store	1 680,929	
		22,204,704
Net excess of territorial debts in India, beyond the assets ...		£16,385,953

Total revenue of the Bengal Presidency, 1821-22...		£18,340,502
Ditto .... Madras	ditto ...... ditto ...	5,557,129
Ditto .... Bombay	ditto ...... ditto ...	2,855,741
Total, 1821-22...		£21,753,372

In 1821-22 the gross receipts on account of salt amounted to current rupees 2,06,07,680; the charges to 59,71,710 current rupees. The quantity of salt formerly sold within the year was from 4,000,000, to 4,500,000 maunds, but it has been gradually increased, and of late years the sales have extended to 4,800,000 maunds.

In 1821-22 the gross receipts on account of opium amounted to current rupees 1,12,57,275. The cost and charges to 9,86,722 current rupees.

	Current rupees.		Current rupees.
Stamp duties, 1822-23 (per estimate)...	21,57,600.	Charges	5,80,000
Customs, old territory, 1821-22 do......	47,90,014.	Ditto	7,06,651
Customs in the Conquered and Ceded Territories, 1821-22	84,74,490.	Ditto	12,01,932

In the ceded provinces the public revenue has always been satisfactorily collected, if compared with the collection only a few years ago in the lower districts, even under all the advantages arising from a permanent settlement. For a considerable period of time subsequent to the conclusion of that settlement, the ultimate arrears stood in a much higher ratio to the jumma, than they did in the ceded districts a very few years after their acquisition, nor was it until the year 1800 that they were reduced within a moderate compass. Hence a new argument arises against a premature settlement in perpetuity of the upper provinces, which under their present constitution are sufficiently prosperous, the cultivation extending, and the population increasing, and becoming daily more contented and tractable, all of which improvements have taken place under a system of temporary leases, and in spite of adverse and precarious seasons.

The Mahomedans, from the beginning of their power, employed the Persian language in the affairs of government, and, notwithstanding its clumsy and cumbersome arithmetic, in the collection also of the revenue. This practice aided them in maintaining their authority, and enabled them, instead of blindly depending on native functionaries, to look into the conduct and details of public business, as well as to keep intelligible registers of the income and expenditure of the state. The native Hindoos, finding that a knowledge of the language of government was necessary to every concern of revenue and justice, made exertions to acquire it, and in process of time became teachers of it throughout the whole Mogul empire. At present, owing to the paucity of European agency, and its enormous expense, the size of the districts, and the multifarious duties of the collectors, it appears manifest that these officers can only inspect much the greater portion of business through the medium of native servants, that is to say, through the falsest medium possible.

Among the various pretexts adopted by the landowners in this province for reducing the revenue to a trifle, one of the most common and successful is, to write down a large portion of their estates as destroyed by rivers. This furnishes a good plea, not only for a deduction from the revenue assessment, but keeps open a claim for the lands that might be afterwards recovered. In many cases this has succeeded, as no additional revenue is exacted when a river adds new lands to a zemindary; a gradual diminution of the aggregate revenue must be constantly taking place. Under these circumstances, the most substantial advantages would be derived from regular surveys of each district respectively, undertaken by professional persons, and executed in a scientific manner.

In Bengal the class of needy land proprietors is very numerous; but even the greatest zemindars are not in a situation to allow that indulgence and accommodation to their tenants, which might be expected on viewing the nominal extent of their income. Responsible to government

for a tax originally calculated at ten-elevenths of the expected rents, and owing to their own dissolute habits, they have not usually any considerable surplus after their expenditure to compensate for their risk. Any accident, any calamity, may involve a zemindar in difficulties from which no economy or retrenchment can relieve him. Prior to 1790 half the revenues of Bengal were paid by six large zemindaries, *viz.* Rajeshahy, Burdwan, Dinagepoor, Nuddea, Birbhoom, and Calcutta.

Free lands are distinguished according to their appropriations, for Brahmins, bards, encomiastics, ascetics, priests, and mendicants, or as a provision for several public officers. The greater part of the present free lands in Bengal were originally granted in small portions of waste ground. The more extensive tracts of free land are managed in the same mode as estates assessed for revenue, and the subject is adverted to in each district-respectively.

Sayer revenue of the nature of land rent, consists of ground rent for the sites of houses and gardens; revenue drawn from fruit trees, pastures, mathes, rent of fisheries, and other variable imposts. Many articles of sayer formerly collected within the village have been abolished; such, for example, as market tolls and personal taxes. Ground-rents never were generally levied from cultivators engaged in husbandry. No branch of administration requires more prudence and circumspection, or a more accurate knowledge of the temper and character of the people of India, than the imposition of new taxes, and it is always preferable to seek an increase by the renewal of old, rather than the establishment of new taxes. The civil and domestic usages of the natives are so interwoven with their religious rites, and they are so particularly alive to every innovation or departure from established custom, that in fixing a tax on articles of general consumption, it is not to be considered whether it really be more or less oppressive than a tax directly collected from the individual, but whether it be so felt by him. By an impost on articles of consumption, the subject who is compelled by his inclination or necessities to the use of it, thus gradually and almost imperceptibly contributes to the revenue of the state; while a personal demand *on him for the payment of* a sum much less than the aggregate of what he indirectly contributes, may be considered by him an extortion, which he is warranted in evading if he can. Owing also to the abuses inseparable from all transactions carried on by native officers with small salaries, placed beyond the inspection and control of the *Company's European functionaries*, the community when a duty is laid on, have in general to pay almost twice as much as ever finds its way into the public treasury.

A poll-tax called jaziyeh was imposed by the Khalif Omar, on all persons not of the Mahomedan faith. The Mussulmaun conquerors of Hindostan imposed it on the Hindoos as infidels, but it was abolished by the emperor Acber. At a subsequent period Aurungzebe attempted to revive it, but without success. In addition to the other sources of revenue, the British government levy a tax on Hindoo pilgrims, in continuance of former usage, at Gaya, Juggernauth, and Allahabad.

The civil and military government of the territories under the Bengal presidency, now comprehending the richest portion of Hindostan proper, is vested in a Governor-general and three councillors. Vacancies in the council are supplied by the Court of Directors, with the sanction of the India Board, from civil servants of not less than twelve years' standing. For the administration of justice throughout the subordinate provinces, there are in the civil and criminal departments one supreme court, stationed in Calcutta, and limited in its jurisdiction to the Maharatta ditch; six courts of appeal and circuit: the Calcutta, Moorshedabad, Dacca, Patna, Benares, and Bareilly; and forty-

seven zillah and city courts, stationed as follows:

Agra,	Juanpoor,
Allahabad,	Jungle Mahals,
Alighur,	Meerut,
Backergunge,	Midnapoor,
Bahar,	Mirzapoor,
Bareilly,	Moorshedabad,
Benares,	Moradabad,
Birbhoom,	Mymunsingh,
Boglipoor,	Nuddea,
Bundelcund,	Purnea,
Burdwan,	Rajeshahy,
Caunpoor,	Ramghur,
Chittagong,	Rungpoor,
Cuttack,	Sarun,
Dacca Jelalpoor,	Shahabad,
Dinagepoor,	Saharunpoor,
Etawah,	Shahjehanpoor,
Furruckabad,	Silhet,
Goruckpoor,	Tiperah,
Hooghly,	Tirhoot,
Jessore,	24-Pergunnahs.

The city courts are:

Benares,	Moorshedabad,
Dacca,	Patna.

The courts of circuit consist of three judges with a register, together with native officers, Mahomedan and Hindoo. The judges make their circuits at stated periods, and also hold regular and frequent gaol deliveries. They try criminal offences according to the Mahomedan law; but when the sentence is capital, or imprisonment is awarded beyond a defined period, it does not take effect until it receives confirmation from the superior criminal court stationed in Calcutta, and named the Sudder Nizamut Adawlut, or chief criminal court. The principal business of this court is to revise trials; but it is in no case permitted to aggravate the severity of the sentence.

In the provincial districts, the officer who in his criminal capacity has the appellation of magistrate, is also the civil judge of the district or city in which he resides. He tries all suits of a civil nature, provided the cause of action has arisen, the property concerned be situated, or the defendant be resident, within his jurisdiction. To try suits of a small amount the judge may appoint native commissioners, from whose decisions an appeal lies to the judge; and, with a few exceptions, the decisions of the judges are appealable to the provincial courts of circuit within the bounds of which he resides. Each district court has a register, with one or more assistants from among the junior civil servants, and each court is provided with natives duly qualified to expound the Hindoo and Mahomedan law.

In criminal matters the magistrates of districts are vested with powers to apprehend and examine all offenders. On slight offences they may pass and execute sentence; in cases of greater atrocity, it is their business to secure the supposed delinquents for trial before the court of circuit, which is effected by committing or holding to bail. Each zillah or district is subdivided into portions usually about twenty miles square, and in each of these a darogah, or head police-officer, is established, with armed followers, who is empowered to apprehend on a written charge, and to take security when the offence is bailable for appearance before the magistrate. The average size of a Bengal district may be taken at 6,000 square miles; but in particular instances, owing to the great extent of waste and woodlands or the reverse, the dimensions vary extremely. Burdwan contains only 2,400, and Ramghur above 10,000.

The ultimate court of appeal in civil matters sits in the city of Calcutta, and is styled the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, or chief civil court. To this court all causes respecting personal property beyond 5,000 rupees value, are appealable: with regard to real property, it is calculated by certain rules, differing according to the nature and tenure of the property. From this court an appeal lies to the King in council, if the value of the property concerned amounts to £5,000.

Under the Mahomedan government suitors pleaded their own causes, and the practice continued until 1793, when regular native advocates were

appointed. These pleaders are usually selected from the Mussulman college at Calcutta, and Hindoo college at Benares, and the rate of fees is fixed by public regulation This institution ensures suitors against negligence or misconduct, on the part either of the judge or his native assistants, the advocates being often as conversant in the business of the court as any of the public officers. As an ultimate security for the purity of justice, provisions have been made against the corruption of those who administer it. The receiving of a sum of money or other valuable gift, or under colour thereof, by a British subject in the service of the government, is deemed to be taken by extortion, and is a misdemeanor at law.

Written pleadings in the native languages have been introduced, for the purpose of bringing litigation to a point, and enforcing in legal proceedings as much precision as the habits of the people will admit. Before this modification, the charge and defence consisted of confused oral complaints, loudly urged on the one side, and as loudly contradicted on the other. In receiving evidence great indulgence is granted to the scruples of caste, and the prejudices against the public appearance of females so prevalent in eastern countries. Select cases, civil and criminal, are annually published, which reports, by diffusing a knowledge of the legal principles established in the courts of the Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawluts, are productive of essential benefit in the general administration of justice, and tend to prevent litigation, to which the natives are so prone, that in some districts they might almost be reduced to two classes, plaintiffs and defendants. The Marquess Cornwallis, about 1793, allowed all causes to be filed without expense, and the consequence was that the courts were soon overloaded. An institution fee was in consequence established, with a retrospective operation, and the result was that in one day, and in one court, no less than 14,000 causes were struck off. What must the effect have been in the whole province!

The Mahomedan law constitutes ostensibly the ground-work of the criminal jurisprudence of the country; but although the name and many of the external forms of that code be retained, its execution is so corrected in essentials that it may more properly be regarded as the administration of British criminal justice. At present the system of criminal law, as promulgated in the provinces subordinate to the Bengal presidency, is in reality a system of jurisprudence founded on the natural principles of justice; which form, or ought to form, the base of every criminal code. In civil matters the Hindoos and Mahomedans substantially enjoy their respective usage. The prejudices of both are treated with indulgence, and the respect that Asiatic manners enjoin to females of rank is scrupulously enforced.

In the criminal department, no offence has occupied so much of the time and attention of the government and its functionaries as dacoity or gang robbery, which for an astonishing length of time baffled the united efforts of every department; but at length, by unremitted preseverance and vigilance, if not wholly eradicated, it has been greatly diminished. Indeed, generally speaking, this scourge, under which Bengal suffered from the first acquisition of the province until it had reached its acmé in 1807, has been generally suppressed. Robberies, in the ordinary sense of the expression, are still committed; but dacoity, considered as a crime distinguished from all others by its peculiar malignity and by involving the perpetrators in other crimes of a most atrocious and sanguinary character, has been nearly extinguished. The Sunderbunds have always been regarded as peculiarly adapted for the reception and concealment of river pirates: yet even this labyrinth of wood, water, and rank vegetation, great progress has been made in the extirpation of gang robbery.

In the ceded and conquered pro-

vinces, although less progress has apparently been made in the suppression of crimes than in the old territories, yet manifest traces are perceptible of the influence of a regular system of civil polity on the great mass of the people. On the first acquisition of these provinces, one of the greatest evils was the private war which the proprietors of estates and individuals carried on against each other. Vindictive assassination, for real or imaginary injuries, was also a crime of frequent occurrence; and both enormities had their origin in the same cause, *viz.* the weakness of the preceding governments, and the want of regular tribunals to take cognizance of wrongs committed by individuals on their fellow subjects. Considerable progress has been made towards the suppression of both these crimes; but murders, perpetrated by a class of people named Thugs, still continue in spite of the increased exertions of the police. In the upper provinces, highway robbery and gang robbery are seldom known to prevail together; the first usually commencing when an effectual check has been given to the last.

As dacoits or gang robbers occupy so prominent a part in the criminal jurisprudence of Bengal, a few more observations towards the development of their character may be usefully employed. Sixty years ago the rivers of Bengal were nearly impassable for unarmed boats, on account of the immense bands of pirates who roamed unchecked through every part of the province; at present, except occasionally in some large rivers near the sea, the inland navigation is wholly free from every perilous obstruction. Among the dacoits in Bengal, many instances occur of whole families practising robbery from generation to generation, and individuals among them boast that their progenitors were hanged, or died in perpetual imprisonment. Their leaders succeed each other like officers of a regular establishment, and being all predestinarians, they are indifferent as to the result of their hazardous career. Nor do they attach obloquy to the name of dacoit: in that character they are something; as labourers or cultivators, nothing. Besides this, they to the last entertain hopes of escaping punishment, either by flying for concealment to the creeks, woods, jungles, or low islands overgrown with rank weeds; or when captured, by the expectation that the terror their name inspires will prevent evidence appearing against them. When they are at last brought to the fatal tree, the dacoits who suffer capital punishment meet their fate with the greatest fortitude, and the exhibition is considered by the lookers-on as a sort of gratis entertainment. The penitence and contrition shewn by criminals in England, when the sentence is on the point of execution, and which makes such a serious and salutary impression on the spectators, is never observed in this country, where in fact felons are much more afraid of transportation than of death.

In Bengal, robbers are not shunned and hated as in Europe. On the contrary, they have homes, often land and cattle, and are not only associated with, but are frequently men of influence in their villages, although their profession be universally known. This can only be ascribed to a general absence of the moral principle, which applies to the Mahomedans as well as to the Hindoos, the lower classes of the former having evidently adopted many of the worst practices of Hindoo idolatry. The dacoits of both religions are not only unrestrained by terrors of conscience, but affect to sanctify their execrable deeds by offerings and invocations to the goddess Cali; and that human blood is now seldom shed on these occasions, is to be attributed to the introduction of the British system of police, which, with all its defects, is perfection compared with that which preceded it. The great mass of Bengalese are certainly not constitutionally brutal or inexorable, on the contrary, they are usually mild and placable; yet it must be admitted, that the cri-

minal records of the province will furnish such instances of cruelty and ferocity, as perhaps the history of no country in Europe can parallel.

To the universal prevalence of perjury may also be attributed the long continuance and existing frequency of gang robbery; and to such a pitch of shameless audacity has this crime long attained, that the judge is often obliged to investigate the character of the witness with more anxiety than that of the prisoner. In 1800, a zemindary dewan, by caste a Brahmin, after having circumstantially sworn to the nature, number, and authors of the wounds inflicted on two of his cutcherry (office) servants, alleged to have been murdered in an attempt to dispossess him of the cutcherry, scarcely blushed when the two men were produced alive and unhurt in court, and merely pleaded in extenuation, that if he had not sworn as he was instructed he would have lost his place. The little obligation attached by the natives to an oath, appears in a great degree to proceed from the nature of their superstition, and the degrading attributes of their deities, as well as the total absence of moral instruction from their system of education, and its necessarian tendency. Hence originates the general exclamation of criminals, when convicted of murder, that it was their destiny, and they seldom or never acknowledge any other motive. It is probable that in time the exemplary punishments inflicted will deaden the alacrity with which crimes have hitherto been committed, and the steady and just administration of the laws go a certain way towards imbuing the inhabitants with a moral principle, or something resembling it. At present they have neither, at least in the true christian sense of the word; but sufficient time has not yet elapsed, so as to occasion any solid improvement of character.

There is no crime more frequent in Bengal and Hindostan generally, than the murdering of children for the sake of the gold and silver ornaments, with which, in spite of every exhortation on the part of the British functionaries, they persevere in adorning them. These horrid crimes are usually perpetrated by friends, neighbours, and relations, unable to resist the tempting opportunity, and the parents would almost appear voluntarily to dress out their child for a victim. The frequent occurrence of the crime, attracted at different periods the attention of the government, and the courts of circuit were consulted as to the possibility of suggesting any preventive expedient, not likely to excite dissatisfaction among the natives by such interference with their domestic usages. Nothing, however, could be devised except increased vigilance in detecting, and rigorous enforcement and publicity of the punishment.

Constituted as the government now is, the zemindars could not with justice be made responsible for the property plundered on their estates, unless they were authorized and required to retain establishments for the seizure of public offenders: an arrangement that would in effect transfer the charge of the police to the zemindars, and again open a door to all the abuses committed by them in former times, when they were entrusted with the police of their respective estates. At present it scarcely ever happens that the zemindars resist the execution of a decree of the civil court, or assemble their people afterwards for the purpose of fighting and dispossessing the person in whose favour the decree had been awarded. By this class, however, the large portion of lands, allotted during the Mogul government for the maintenance of village watchmen, have been long ago appropriated, and have wholly disappeared from the public records. It is consequently to be apprehended that if waste lands were again set apart for that purpose, a similar absorption would take place as soon as they had attained a certain stage of cultivation.

Much might be said respecting the character of the Bengalese zemindars, a most important class of natives, but

it is very difficult to render the subject intelligible to European readers. Like the great mass of the people, a Bengalese zemindar enjoys only the present hour, is improvident of the future, and most of them are mere puppets in the hands of the unprincipled managers of their estates. They are consequently soon involved in difficulties, from which they are unable to extricate themselves, and their estates are sold; but their ruin they impute to the strictness and severity of government in the exaction of the revenue. It was, no doubt, the intention of government to confer an important benefit on this class of subjects, by abolishing the custom of imprisoning them for arrears of revenue; but they assert it has been found, from melancholy experience, that the system of sales and attachments, substituted in its stead, has in the course of a very few years reduced more of the great zemindars in Bengal to distress and beggary, and effected a greater mutation of landed property in the province, than perhaps ever happened in any age or country as the mere consequence of internal regulations. Blind and insensible as the natives are to consequences, they will hardly give themselves the trouble of guarding against a distant evil, or undertake anything for the sake of a remote advantage, more than the mere stimulus of money being necessary to rouse them. To this apathy and supineness in their dispositions, joined to habits of dissipation, extravagance, and disunion, is to be ascribed the ruin of many zemindars; but in other cases this effect has resulted from their estates being over-assessed, and the difficulties in realizing the rents due by sub-tenants and cultivators.

In this province there are many female zemindars, generally subservient to, and under the management of the family Brahmin, who controls their consciences. This person has his own private interests to attend to, and, without appearing, exerts an influence over the public business of the zemindary. The ostensible managing agent submits to the control of a concealed authority, which he must conciliate, and the interests of the state and zemindar equally bend to it. A Brahmin in Bengal not only obtains a lease of land on better terms than any other caste, but also enjoys exemption from various impositions and extortions, to which the less sacred classes are subjected.

Throughout the whole of Bengal, there is very little distinction to be observed between the houses of the meanest peasant and those of the zemindar, which is probably in part owing to the rule of inheritance that prevails, both with Mahomedans and Hindoos, and in families is an interminable source of jealousy, enmity, and dispute. Property of every sort being universally liable to equality of partition among the heirs, must, if persevered in, soon reduce all to the same level, and its progress to the lowest degree be accelerated with an increasing momentum. Another evil consequence of this community of property is, that it deadens all individual exertions for its improvement.

Religious buildings and public edifices of great size are now seldom constructed in Bengal. What wealth remains with the natives is more widely diffused than formerly, and the fortunes accumulated by Europeans are invariably remitted to Europe. This latter class now occupy the stations of those native officers who in former times, either from motives of charity or ostentation, raised those buildings of utility, which are now to be traced out only by their ruins; and in fact the light soil, alluvial situation, and exuberant vegetation of Bengal, are hostile to the permanence of any erections, however well constructed originally. With a particular class of natives it is a very general complaint that they cannot now procure a livelihood in the British provinces. They allege that, under former governments, the number of troops entertained, and the various descriptions of servants required for state and for the revenue

collections, afforded means of employment which are now lost; the troops and officers under the British government being circumscribed to the smallest possible scale. On this account, and probably also the equality of ranks in the distribution of justice, some of the principal inhabitants, especially the Mahomedans, cannot be reconciled to any foreign government; and, reflecting with regret on the loss of their former privileges, view with disgust the impartial system of British jurisprudence, which has wholly neutralized their importance in society. In the course of time it is to be expected that this sensation will subside, and either give place to a conviction of the advantages resulting from the exchange, or be wholly forgotten, by people nearly insensible either to the past or the future. One thing is certain, that owing to the long duration of domestic quiet, they have already forgotten their former condition of turbulence and anarchy, when scarce a year passed over without their being disturbed by the rumour, or terrified with the atrocities, of actual warfare

The great increase of law suits has been the subject of much animadversion: yet it may be traced to a cause highly honourable to the British government, *viz.* to the increased value of every description of property, but more especially of landed property, and to the confidence felt by the natives in that security This consequence leads them to prosecute for the recovery of rights, real or imaginary, which in other times, and under other circumstances, they would have abandoned as unworthy of attention; which sentiment has been greatly strengthened by the strict adherence on the part of government to the terms of the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered perpetual. Formerly the cultivators of the soil when oppressed beyond endurance, were accustomed to assemble in crowds, with ploughs and other implements, and demand justice with violent and outrageous clamour, at present they proceed by regular process, and harass each other through the forms of law in the civil and criminal courts.

It is difficult to say whether the great bulk of the natives be decidedly attached to the British government or not, their common speech to European functionaries being a mere rant of praise and flattery; and it may be presumed that those inhabitants with whom the British associate, are not deficient in extolling the happy effects of the British domination. Generally speaking, it is probable that the first class of Hindoo inhabitants are dissatisfied, chiefly from motives of ambition; the middling satisfied and the lower well pleased with the British government, which has so essentially meliorated their condition. On the other hand the higher ranks of Mahomedans, whose government we have subverted, in addition to their religious prejudices, have many political reasons to detest our predominance. The men of opulence now in Bengal are the Hindoo merchants, bankers, and banyans of Calcutta, with a few others at the principal stations. The greatest men formerly were the Mahomedan rulers, whom we have superseded, and the Hindoo zemindars. These two classes are now reduced to poverty, and the lower classes now look up to the official servants and domestics of the the English gentlemen No native has any motive to distinguish himself greatly in the army where he cannot rise higher than a soubadar, a rank inferior to an ensign.

It has always formed part of the British system to endeavour to raise up a class of respectable landed proprietors, on which account great encouragement has always been given to the permanence in families of landed property; but it is to be feared without success, principally owing to the invincible folly of the native proprietors, and the nature of their law of inheritance, which parcels out their estates into the minutest fragments. At present, it must be confessed there is no intermediate class between the sovereign and the common people,

and the distance between the two is consequently infinite. Notwithstanding the long duration of the Mahomedan sway, it had very little effect on the mass of the people; and our government must have still less, because we do not, like the Mahomedans, mix and coalesce with them; they consequently appear as remote from adopting English customs as the English are from adopting theirs. Respecting the nature of the British government the natives remain superlatively ignorant. In Calcutta a degree of curiosity may sometimes be observed, and a desire to converse on state affairs: but on these occasions the best-informed natives always betray an extreme ignorance. The most learned have no knowledge of the law of nations, nor do they suppose the measures of the supreme power to be founded in equity or moderation, the notion of a supreme executive government prescribing laws and limits to its own authority, not presenting a very intelligible idea to a native On this account many of them still consider the regulations of government as only temporary, and liable to be altered and rescinded by the interest or caprice of the power that enacted them.

Although the bulk of the natives cannot be described as decidedly attached to the British government, which they certainly do not understand, that government is nevertheless very strong, and secure from any serious internal commotion, for none ever stood more independent of public opinion. To the inhabitants, the political state of the country is a complete incomprehensible mystery; yet it is probable that, since our effectual establishment in 1765, no native ever dreamed of subverting the government. In this point of view the mass of natives are most ignorant and helpless, without concert or combination, and no oppression of the ruling power would produce any resistance that might not be quelled by a company of sepoys. The power of the British government in Bengal is completely despotic, and the submission of its subjects perfect and unqualified. This is, in fact, so complete as to preclude the necessity of coercion or intimidation of any kind; all appearance consequently of military interference may be kept wholly out of sight, and it will be only when European laws, religion, and literature, come to be disseminated, that it will be necessary to draw the reins tighter, to prove that we possess power irresistible to command obedience.

The army is powerful, and may be with certainty depended on, so long as they are regularly paid. The sepoys, like the rest of the people, are entirely uninstructed as to the form of government, policy of their rulers, or justice of their wars, and in this ignorance and apathy consists our strength.

It is a truth perfectly obvious, that the peculiar interests of the British nation recommend the happiness of its native subjects. On the acquisition of these territories, the primary object certainly was to discover what could be obtained from them, not how they might be most benefited. In process of time, however, it became necessary to devise how they might be benefited, in order that the same amount of resources might continue to be drawn from them. Persons who remembered the state of this province in 1769 and 1789, the thirtieth of the revolution, were inclined to think that it exhibited more appearance of opulence at the first than at the last period: an opinion confirmed by the records of the province for the twelve years subsequent to 1769; the decline continuing long after the effects of the famine had ceased to operate. But, without resorting to local mismanagement, the nature of the connexion which binds Bengal to Britain, will sufficiently account for the tendency of its internal condition to deteriorate. All the offices of trust and emolument, civil and military, and the highest lines of commerce, are in the hands of strangers, who, after a temporary residence, depart with the capital they have accumulated, while under native

rulers, even the extortions of rapacity and the drains of tribute again entered circulation, and promoted in some form the territorial industry. Under its present constitution, the remittance, or rather tribute, to Britain, carries off every year a large share of the produce, for which nothing is returned.

Beyond Bengal the natives of the northern mountains prove by their features a Tartar origin; they people the northern boundary of Bengal. On the eastern hills and adjacent plains the peculiar features of the inhabitants shew with equal certainty a distinct origin; and the elevated tract that Bengal includes on the west is peopled from a stock obviously distinct, or rather by several races of mountaineers, the probable aborigines of the country. The latter are most evidently distinguished by their religion, character, language, and manners, as well as by their features, from the Hindoo natives. Under various denominations, they appear formerly to have peopled the vast mountainous tract that occupies Central India, and some of their tribes have not yet emerged from the savage state. In the mixed population of the middle districts the Hindoos may be easily distinguished from the Mahomedans; and among the latter the Mogul, Afghan, and their immediate descendants, may be discriminated from the naturalized Mussulmaun. Among the Hindoos may be recognized the peculiar features of the Bengalese, contrasted with those of the Hindostany.

In this province the first rudiments of education are generally given in small day schools, under the tuition of teachers, who are little respected and poorly rewarded, and are quite different from the gooroos (family priests) who instruct in religion. Children usually go to school at five, and are instructed to read and write at the same time. They begin by tracing letters on the floor with a pencil of steatite, and in five or six months they are thus able to read and write. They then begin to write cyphers on palmyra leaves with a reed and ink, and at the same time learn numeration and the subdivisions of weights and measures, and of time belonging to astronomy, or rather to astrology, the whole occupying about eighteen months. After this progress they begin to write on paper, and to learn to keep accounts, and at the same time to multiply, divide, and subtract, with the rule of practice, in which the usual arithmetic consists.

In this scheme of instruction, accounts and arithmetic are divided into two distinct departments: one for agriculture, and the other for commercial affairs. When both are learned, the former is taught first; but not many of the natives acquire that knowledge, or are able to tell how many begas or fractions a rectangled parallelogram contains: for the Hindoo geometry, as far as is known, in practice proceeds no further. Practical surveyors have no mode of ascertaining the extent of irregular figures but by reducing them to rectangled parallelograms, in which they are guided merely by the eye or by rough estimation; and even in measuring parallelograms, they are destitute of any instrument that can ascertain whether or not all the angles be equal.

The Bengal year 1232 began on the 11th April 1824. When this era was instituted is uncertain; but, according to tradition, is said to have been introduced by one of the Mahomedan kings of Bengal, and seems originally to have had reference to the year of the Hejira, but without adjusting the Bengal solar to the Hejira lunar year, consequently, in three centuries it will have lost about eight years.

In Bengal, parents are generally satisfied with instructing their children in mercantile accounts, and in keeping a very full day or waste-book, in which every transaction is carefully recorded, and to which is added a kind of ledger; but their books do not admit of striking a regular balance, like the Italian method. It is only arithmetic commercial and practical that is taught at school; the ap-

plication to mensuration and to the keeping of books, either of a merchant or landholder, are acquired in some office or shop, where the youth commences as an assistant, and learns the style and manner of correspondence. The use of the sharp iron style for writing on bark and leaves, although the original manner of Hindoo writing, has been entirely abandoned, and the reed pen and bamboo inkstand, introduced by the Mahomedans, are now universally employed, even in writing on the palmyra leaf, which substance is still used for works of value, being more durable than the paper fabricated in the province. Besides paper, the natives pay for writing rather less than one rupee for every 32,000 letters of the alphabet.

It has long been remarked that science and literature are in a progressive state of decay among the natives of India, the number of learned men being not only diminished, but the circle of learning, even among those who still devote themselves to it, greatly contracted. The abstract sciences are abandoned; polite literature neglected; and no branch of learning cultivated but what is connected with the peculiar religious sects and doctrines, or with the astrology of the people. The principal cause of this retrograde condition of literature may be traced to the want of that encouragement which was formerly afforded to it by princes, chieftains, and opulent individuals, under the native governments, now past and gone. Influenced by a desire to retrieve native learning from its prostrate condition, Lord Minto, in 1811, adopted certain measures for the encouragement of erudition and science, by a system of liberal salaries and donations; but it is greatly to be doubted whether, under existing circumstances, it be practicable to reimbue the natives with a taste for their own literature, or if practicable, desirable. With the prospect before them of a long and intimate connexion with their present rulers, it would probably prove a much more advantageous measure to direct their views to European learning and science, by the establishment of schools for the study of the English language in all the principal towns, cities, and civil and military stations. The practicability of such a change has already been demonstrated, in the universal diffusion of the Persian, also a foreign language, and the natives have a peculiar facility in acquiring the English, both as to idiom and pronunciation. Their studies would then assume a more elevated direction, tending to the improvement of their moral and intellectual character, which would gradually wean them from the attachment they still evince to their absurd mythological superstitions, and lead ultimately to the tranquil adoption of a purer and more rational system of religion.

The genuine Bengalese towns are not arranged into streets, but into divisions of east, west, north, south, and centre. In one part the Hindoos reside, in another the Mahomedans, and in a third the native Portuguese, &c. The Hindoo portion is farther subdivided into the quarters of Brahmins, scribes, weavers, oil-makers, washermen, barbers, cultivators, potters, &c., but this distribution is not always strictly observed. It is not the custom to build one house sufficient for the whole family; on the contrary, except among the great, a separate house or hut is generally allotted for each particular purpose, and these huts collectively are surrounded by a fence. The houses of the rich are of brick, and flat-roofed, generally two stories high, but the windows are mere air-holes. In the first story the idol is set up; the upper rooms are occupied by the family. Throughout the province, except in large towns, there are no inns, nor place of accommodation for the mere traveller; yet in every small town he may procure an empty house or hut where he may have shelter.

Many intelligent persons have been of opinion that vegetable food, seasoned with capsicum, and water to drink, is the diet best adapted for a

warm climate: but the justice of this notion there is much reason to question. The natives of Bengal, who subsist exactly in this manner, have extremely weak constitutions, incapable of resisting the slightest change of air or water. It is more probable that those who enjoy a diet which includes animal food, and strong liquors in moderate quantities, are best able to support the influence of unwholesome climates, and the sudden alterations of the atmosphere. The Arabian prophet has also had encomiums for his prohibition of strong liquors, upon the supposition that excessive inebriety would throw the natives of warm climates into most ungovernable paroxysms of fury. The fact, however, is here exactly the reverse, for nothing can be quieter than a drunken Bengally. On these occasions he either retires with his wife or mistress to some private place, where both parties drink until satiated, or he swallows so much liquor at once as to deprive himself both of reason and voluntary motion, and falls down prone on the earth a stupid block. It is seldom or never that, like the Centaurs and Lapithæ, he engages in that boisterous conviviality which generates feuds, broils, and quarrels.

The extracts of poppy and hemp are considered by native moralists more innocent than spirituous liquors, yet they are much more apt than distilled spirits to lead to the most beastly private intoxication. A Brahmin who intoxicates himself with these drugs is considered blameable, but it does not involve loss of caste Many of the lower tribes use them whenever they can, but it is only the very lowest that will drink spirits openly. All women chew tobacco, but it is only the females of unclean tribes and prostitutes that will smoke. No man loses caste by smoking tobacco, and all practise it except a few pundits, who content themselves with snuffing, which is considered more dignified than smoking. Men seldom chew tobacco.

In general a Hindoo man of rank or high caste passes a great part of his time cooking: but the ceremonies which this operation involves being very troublesome, many of the natives kindle a fire but once a day, generally in the evening, when they make their principal meal. In the morning and at noon they eat some food that does not require cooking, such as parched rice, or rice parboiled and afterwards beaten flat and dried. Those who can afford the expense, mix it with molasses, and form cakes or balls; and some mix it with milk, sour or curdled, or with tamarinds. The poor either eat it without any addition, or moisten it with a little water, and, if such luxuries be attainable, with a little salt or some acid fruit. The preparations of milk are various, consisting of boiled butter (ghee), curdled sour milk, butter-milk, inspissated milk, and curds. The natives use only boiled milk, the taste as it comes from the cow being considered unpalatable Neither is the butter ever used without having been boiled, which process converts it into an oil that keeps much better than butter Even in the climate of Bengal, it undergoes little change for a month, and may be used after having been kept a year. The Bengal sweetmeats please neither the eye nor palate of Europeans, but the rich natives use large quantities, mostly fried in oil or butter.

Dogs, the humble ally of man, are little honoured in India, and no employ can be more disgraceful than the taking care of this faithful brute; yet the breed in Bengal is very numerous, and every village swarms with half-starved curs, which eat every sort of carcase and filth, and are not reckoned the property of any body. The natives rarely enter into any familiarity with them, nor are the children ever seen either caressing or tormenting them, as in Europe. They are in fact merely tolerated; one or two, according to the wealth of a family, being permitted to eat the scraps, in return for which they sleep in the yard, and bark when a stranger approaches. The bitches

are few in number, and commonly more starved than the dogs, being weaker, and the natives observing a strict neutrality in their quarrels. These creatures are so prolific that the number of dogs always exceeds that of the houses which give them shelter, and a large proportion have no resource but to roam about in misery like jackals. But, under all their hardships, they retain the affectionate nature of their kind: the least feeding attaches them, and when the pangs of hunger are deadened, the slightest notice delights them, and they soon discover who is the chief person of a party, though he neither caresses nor feeds them. Cats are not numerous, and are, like dogs, just tolerated, and live in a half-domestic half-wild state.

The Bengalese are in general, when young, a lively, handsome race of men. There is also a softness in their features, corresponding to the general mildness, or perhaps, pusillanimity of their character, and were it not for the uncharitable operation of caste, they would, comparatively, be a friendly, inoffensive race. They have a thorough contempt for all other nations and castes (which seems reciprocal), whom they consider impure and degraded, originally Hindoos, but in consequence of their sins and enormities, fallen from that high estate. The contrast between the bluntness of a European and the smooth easy polish of a Bengalese is very striking; the latter are naturally polite, and frequently exhibit a suavity and suppleness of manner that surprises a stranger. This observation, however, is only applicable so far as regards their conduct towards their superiors, for to inferiors, of whatever nation, they are usually insolent and contumelious. Their youths are lively, inquisitive, and of quick perception, and the common people noisy and loquacious. These are of a dark brown colour, middling stature, thin but well made, of an oval countenance, many with aquiline noses, and all with black eyes and hair.

The genuine natives of this province never were a martial race, or disposed to a military life, for which, indeed, their want of personal strength and constitution almost incapacitates them; the army is in consequence entirely recruited from north and western Hindostan. In 1822 three-fourths of the Bengal cavalry were Mahomedans, for, with the exception of the Maharattas, the Hindoos in general are not partial to the duties of a trooper. The reverse is the case in the Bengal infantry, three-fourths of which is composed of Hindoos, who are usually more docile and less dissipated than the Mahomedans. The standard below which no recruit is taken is five feet six inches, but a large proportion of the grenadiers are six feet and upwards.

The dress of the Hindoo men of rank has become nearly the same with that of the Mahomedans. The married Hindoo females use red-lead as an ornament; but instead of painting their cheeks like the European ladies, they rub it on their foreheads, fingers, and nails, and also paint round the soles of their feet with red. In compliment a woman is commended when she is discribed as walking like a duck or an elephant, which is also a sort of waddle. The teeth are beautiful when like the seed of the pomegranate (black and red); the nose, when like the beak of a parrot; the hands and feet like the water lily; the hair when black as a cloud; the chin when resembling the mangoe; and the lips when like the fruit of the talacucha. The hardships imposed on Hindoo widows of pure caste are so severe and degrading, that women of high spirit often prefer the funeral pile; while others submit with patience, and act as menial servants to the vain beauties who are decked in the ornaments of which they have been deprived; others, to escape these harsh regulations, renounce caste and seek refuge in a brothel. In 1823, the number of suttees, or widow burnings, within the Bengal presidency, was, Brahmins 234; Khetries 35; Vaisyas 14; Sudras 292; total 575. But the real number is probably much greater

as the returns are only given with accuracy about Calcutta, within the limits of the Calcutta court of circuit, where 340 out of the above sum total were perpetrated. The ages were, under twenty years of age 32; from twenty to forty years 208; from forty to sixty years 226; above sixty years of age 109; total 575 widows.

To the ear of a European the native music sounds harsh and disagreeable, and to the professed musician is altogether insufferable. The performers, however, are numerous, and the variety of noises they are able to produce, considerable. The highest description consists of bands of instrumental music, which accompany the voices of girls who sing and dance. The latter is quite as bad as their music, being slow, lifeless, and without grace or meaning. The greatest art is to jingle time with some chains, or hollow rings, called goongooroos. which are tied round their ancles, During the Mussulmaun Mohurrem, some persons are employed to sing the praises of Fatima, the daughter of Mahomed, and of her unfortunate sons, Hassan and Hossein. But it is principally at marriages, and during religious processions and grand solemnities, that the full din of harmony is heard, proceeding from eight different kinds of drums, besides gongs, hautboys, buffaloe horns, and brass trumpets, performed by the lowest dregs of the people. From these formidable implements of sound each man extorts as much noise as he can, paying little or no attention to what his comrades are about. Sometimes the men amuse themselves singing hymns or love songs, accompanied by small drums; but it is considered as very disgraceful for a modest woman to sing, or play on any musical instrument. While rowing, the native boatmen endeavour to lessen their fatigue by singing the adventures of Krishna and Radha, and it is among them that any real melody is to be found, some being sweet and plaintive, and strongly resembling the national airs of Scotland and Ireland.

In Bengal the common washermen are almost all Hindoos of a low tribe; but nearly all the tailors are Mahomedans, the needle apparently having been totally unknown to the Hindoos before the Mahomedan invasion. A great proportion of the barbers are a pure tribe, and shave without soap. Rich men often retain barbers, who shave them, pick their ears, cut their nails, and knead their bodies, commonly called shampooing, an operation to which the natives are much attached. Ten days after a woman has been delivered, the nails both of her and her child must be cut. No native woman, except a prostitute, will allow their hair to be cut, such care of her person being deemed incompatible with modesty. Of the medical profession there are here three sects of native physicians; the Yunani (Ionians) among the Mahomedans; the Saka dwipi in Bahar; and the Vaidyas in Bengal.

Domestic slavery is very generally prevalent in Bengal, among both Hindoos and Mahomedans. More trusty than hired servants, slaves are almost exclusively employed in the interior of the house. Every opulent person, every one raised above the condition of the simplest mediocrity, is provided with household slaves, and from this class are chiefly taken the concubines of the Mahomedans and Hindoos; in regard to whom it is to be remembered, that concubinage is not among people of these religions an immoral state, but a relation which both law and custom recognize without reprehension, and its prevalence is only liable to the same objections as polygamy, with which it has a near, and almost necessary connection. In the lower districts under the Bengal presidency, the employment of slaves in the labours of husbandry is almost unknown. In the upper provinces beginning from Western Bahar, and Benares, the petty landlords, who are themselves cultivators, are aided in their husbandry by slaves, whom they very commonly employ as herds and ploughmen. Landlords of a higher class have in a few instances the pretensions of masters over a part of the tenants long settled on their estates, and re-

puted to be descended from persons who were the acknowledged slaves of their ancestors.

It would be difficult to form a computation of the number of slaves throughout the country, or the proportion born to the free population. In a general point of view it may be stated, that slaves are neither so few as to be of no consideration, or so numerous as to compose a notable proportion of the inhabitants. The number, which certainly is not relatively great, has been kept up, first by propagation; secondly, by the sale of free children into slavery; and thirdly, by importation from abroad, by sea or land, but this has been long prohibited. Slavery, however, in its severest sense, may be said to be unknown, the domestic slave being usually rather a favourite and confidential servant, than an abject drudge, and held superior to the hireling, both in the master's estimation and in his own. Opulent persons frequently emancipate but rarely sell their slaves; and the manumission of slaves being deemed an act of piety, it frequently takes place from religious motives, and slaves are expressly redeemed by purchase. The number of slaves continually diminishing by these processes, a demand constantly exists for the purchase of them, which is chiefly supplied by the sale of children by their parents during famines, or under circumstances of peculiar calamity. In such exigencies, parents have been known to sell their children for prices so very inconsiderable, and so little more than nominal, that they may frequently have credit for a better motive than that of momentarily relieving their own necessities; namely, the saving of the children's lives, by interesting in their preservation persons able to provide that nourishment, of which they are themselves destitute. There is no reason for believing that they are ever sold through avarice, or the want of natural affection; indeed the known character of the people in all their relations exempt them from the suspicion of such conduct. The pressure of want, therefore, alone stimulates the sale; and so long as no established fund, or regulated system for the relief of the indigent exists, it does not seem practicable to prevent the disposal of children by their parents, which is permitted by their own laws.

There are two classes of purchasers, however, by whom larger prices are given. The one comprehends various religious orders, the members of which purchase children to initiate them into their own class; but being restricted in their selection to the higher classes of Hindoos, they do not readily find persons willing to part with their children; they are in consequence obliged to bribe the cupidity of parents by a large pecuniary consideration, which their opulence, derived from the union of the commercial with the religious profession, enables them to hold out. The greatness of the reward has been supposed, in some instances, to lead to kidnapping; but this cannot occur frequently, as the purchaser requires always to have the parentage of the child clearly established. The other description of purchasers alluded to consists of the owners of sets of dancing women, who buy female children, and instruct them for public exhibition, and as they generally become courtezans, prohibitory laws might be enacted. Yet it would perhaps be going too far, to presume in all cases the intention of prostitution, and to interdict all instruction in the art of dancing, which forms a regular and necessary part of their religious festivals and celebrations.

The remaining source for the supply of slaves, until prohibited by law, was the importation by sea and by land. By the first-mentioned channel a few African slaves, never amounting to one hundred, were brought to Calcutta in the Arab ships. The importation by land was principally from the Nepaulese dominions, where the oppressive administration of the Gorkhas drove the wretched inhabitants to the sad resource of selling their children, or themselves, into slavery, when all other expedients of meeting the insatiable exactions of their rulers

were exhausted. At present the existence of slavery, as sanctioned by the Hindoo and Mahomedan law, is tolerated and maintained by the courts of judicature under the British government in India, nor does it appear that any legislative enactment is called for. Although the native laws have not provided against the barbarity of an inhuman master, the British local regulations have, by expressly annulling the exemption from kisas, or retaliation for murder, in 1798, since which period slaves have not been considered out of the protection of the law, either in the cases of murder or of barbarous usage.

Among the native population of the eastern districts of Bengal, the Mahomedans are almost equally numerous with the Hindoos, and in some particular parts, such as Ghoraghaut, a majority of the cultivators appear to have embraced the Arabian faith. In the central districts the Mahomedans do not compose a fourth of the inhabitants, and to the westward the disproportion is still greater. As an average of the whole, the Mahomedans may be computed at one-sixth of the total population of Bengal and Bahar. Of the four great castes, the aggregate of the Brahmin, and Khetri, may amount at the most to one-fifth of the Hindoo population; but, except families that have evidently migrated into Bengal, there are none that pretend to be genuine Khetris or Vaisyas, so that the original Bengalese may be considered as divided into Brahmins and Sudras.

In this province the highest Sudras are the Vaidyas, or medical tribe. The Kayasthas (pronounced kaist, hence the word caste), or writer tribe, follow next; then come nine tribes of tradesmen, who, although greatly inferior to the scribes, are considered pure Sudras, as a Brahmin will condescend to drink water offered by them, nor is he degraded by attending to their spiritual concerns. The nine trades are druggists, shell-workers, coppersmiths, cultivators of betel-leaf, weavers, makers of garlands, blacksmiths, potters, barbers. By some strange caprice, not only the bankers, but also the goldsmiths, are excluded from the pure castes of artificers; while barbers, pot-makers, copper and blacksmiths, obtained that much-envied dignity.

When Raja Bollal Sen arranged the castes of Bengal, it does not appear that he promulgated any code of written regulations, at least no book answering to this description is now extant. In this province commerce and agriculture are permitted to all classes; and, under the designation of servants to the three other tribes, Sudras are allowed to prosecute any manufacture. In practice little attention is paid to the limitation of castes, daily observation shewing Brahmins exercising the martial profession of a Khetri, and even the menial one of a Sudra. It may, however, be received as a general maxim, that the occupation appointed to each tribe is entitled merely to a preference, every profession, with a few exceptions, being open to every description of persons. Many tribes of Hindoos, and even some Brahmins, have no objection to the use of animal food, and at their entertainments it is generally introduced. By some, animal food is daily eaten, and the institutes of their religion require that animal food should be tasted even by Brahmins at solemn sacrifices, forbidding the use of it unless joined with the performance of such a sacrifice.

In this province, and throughout Hindostan generally, every caste, in order to preserve purity, form themselves into clubs or lodges, consisting of individuals of that caste residing within a small distance, and in Bengal termed collectively *dol*, which govern themselves by particular rules and customs, or bye-laws. At the head of each dol is a chief, whose office among the higher ranks is hereditary, and whose duty it is to punish all transgressions, either by excommunication or by fine; but his decision must be guided by the sentiments of the principal persons composing the society. In large towns

there are commonly two or three chiefs of dols, whose adherents in general quarrel and annoy each other as much as circumstances will permit. Each caste, when it is numerous in any place, has, besides, one or more distinct dols or societies for enforcing the observation of its rules. Each kind of Brahmin and each subdivision of Sudra has its own, and most of these are parcelled out into diverging branches, which dispute about purity and precedence. In the various tribes the chiefs of castes are called by different names, but the most common is paramaniks. The crimes usually punished by these combinations are the eating of forbidden things, or the eating in company with forbidden persons, and cohabiting with those who are impure or forbidden.

To describe the ceremonies of each, or of any one of the Bengal castes, would be impracticable within any reasonable limits, and if practicable, would only prove in how preposterously frivolous a manner time may be wasted. In the observance of these ceremonies, however, every Hindoo seems to place his chief gratification, and glories in an established reputation for their strict performance. Except the bodies of children, the dead of all castes are burned, but the funeral pile being expensive, many of the poor cannot afford to be reduced to ashes. As a substitute, a torch or whisp of straw is put into the mouth of the corpse, and afterwards, if near a large river, it is thrown into the water, or, if at a distance, buried, but the first is always preferred, and fills the Ganges and its branches with disgusting objects. The Bengalese Hindoos have in general a great terror of the dead, and will seldom venture to inhabit a house or hut where a person has died. This seems connected with their custom of exposing their sick to perish on the banks of rivers, which tends to aggravate the last pangs of nature, and sometimes not only accelerates death, but exhausts that strength which might possibly have enabled nature to overcome the disease. The custom also furnishes an opportunity of practising other horrid crimes, and it has probably been to guard against the possibility of such events that Hindoo legislators have imposed such severe hardships on widows.

Of the existence of Bengal as a separate kingdom, with the limits assigned to it at present, there is no other evidence than its distinct language and peculiar written character. At the time of the war of the Mahabharat, it formed part of the empire of Magadha, or Bahar, from which, however, it was dismembered before the Mahomedan invasion; but it is rarely in Hindoo books of any kind termed Bungala; Gour and Banga Desa being the usual distinctive appellations. Traditions still current in Bengal, make Bollal Sen, the immediate successor of Adisur, a person of the Vaidya, or medical tribe, who procured the government of the province, but subject to the monarch of the north-west. He is said to have resided partly at Gour, but chiefly at Bikrampoor, eight miles south-east from Dacca.

Adisur's wife had a son named Bollal Sen, begotten by the river Brahmaputra, under the form of a Brahmin. This offspring of the flood succeeded Adisur, and regulated the different castes as they now exist in Bengal, and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that the medical tribe, being that of the prince, is placed next in rank to the Brahmins. Indeed, of the five dynasties that are said to have ruled Bengal prior to the Mahomedan invasion, the four last are said to have been Kaista, and on the first Khetri.

Bollal Sen was succeeded by Lakhyaman Sen, who according to tradition had a son named Madhava Sen, who had a son named Su Sen, usually considered by the Hindoos as the last of their kings; but according to the Ayeen Acberry, Lakhyaman Sen was the last. In A.D. 1203, during the reign of Cuttub ud Deen on the Delhi throne, Ma-

homed Bukhtyar Khillijce was despatched with an army by that sovereign to invade Bengal, and marched with such rapidity that he surprised and took the capital. On the approach of the Mahomedans, Raja Lakhyaman, who resided at Nuddea, made his escape in a boat and fled to Juggernauth, where, according to Mahomedan authorities, he died; but the traditions of the country state that the Raja, dreading the destruction of Brahmins and sacred animals, which a protracted existence might occasion, by a power holy men are supposed to possess, deserted his visible body. It is possible that the Raja only retired to his remote capital, Bikrampoor, near Dacca, where there still resides a family possessing considerable estates, who pretend to be his descendants. We also find that Soonergong, in the vicinity of Bikrampoor, continued to be a place of refuge to the Gour malcontents, and was not finally subjugated until long after the overthrow of Raja Lakhyaman.

The kingdom being in this dastardly manner abandoned by its sovereign, fell an easy prey to the Mahomedan general, who having destroyed Nuddea proceeded to Gour, where he established his capital, and reared his mosques on the ruins of Hindoo temples. According to Mahomedan authorities, the conquest of this large province only occupied one year; but it would appear that after the capture of Gour, the Mahomedans were unable to extend their dominion over the whole Hindoo kingdom of Bengal, not only towards the north and east, but even towards the west; nor did they acquire possession of the whole, constituted as it is at present, until a late period of the Mogul government.

From this era Bengal was ruled by governors delegated from Delhi, until A.D. 1340, when Fakher ud Deen, having assassinated his master, revolted, and erected the independent kingdom of Bengal. After a short reign he was defeated and put to death, and was succeeded by

A.D.
1343. Ilyas Khan
1358. Secunder Shah, killed in an engagement with his son.
1367. Gyas ud Deen He eradicated the eyes of his brothers.
1373. Sultan Assulateen.
1383 Shums ud Deen; defeated and killed in battle by
1385. Raja Cansa, who ascended the throne, and was succeeded by his son,
1392. Cheetmul Jellal ud Deen, who became a convert to the Mahomedan religion.
1409. Ahmed Khan, who sent an embassy to Shahrokh, the son of Timour.
1426. Nassir Shah, succeeded by his son,
1457. Barbek Shah. This prince introduced mercenary guards, and troops composed of negro and Abyssinian slaves.
1474. Yuseph Shah, son of the last monarch, succeeded by his uncle,
1482. Futteh Shah, who was murdered by his eunuchs and Abyssinian slaves, on which event one of the eunuchs seized the crown and assumed the name of
1491. Shah Zadeh; but after a reign of eight months he was assassinated, and the vacant throne taken possession of by
1491 Feroze Shah Hubshy, an Abyssinian slave, succeeded by his son,
1494. Mahmood Shah. This prince was murdered by his slave, an Abyssinian; who ascended the throne under the name of
1495 Muzeffer Shah, who proved a cruel tyrant, and was slain in battle.
1499. Seid Hossein Shah. This prince expelled the Abyssinian troops, who retired to the Deccan and Guzerat, where they afterwards became conspicuous under the appellation of Siddhees. He afterwards invaded Camroop and Assam, but was repulsed with disgrace. Upon the whole, however, he may be considered the most powerful

A.D.

and tolerant of the Bengal kings. He was succeeded by his son,

1520\. Nussert Shah, who was assassinated by his eunuchs, and his son, Feroze Shah, placed on the throne; but after a reign of three months he was assassinated by his uncle,

1533\. Mahmood Shah; subsequently expelled by Shere Shah, the Afghan, and with him, in 1538, ended the series of independent Mahomedan monarchs of Bengal. Some Portuguese ships had entered the Ganges as early as A.D. 1517, and in 1536 a squadron of nine ships was sent to the assistance of Mahmood Shah; but these succours arrived too late, and Bengal once more became an appendage to the throne of Delhi. The nature of the government of the independent kings is little known, but they appear to have enjoyed but little security for their persons, and were in general furious bigots, greatly under the influence of Mussulmaun saints. Shere Shah and his successors occupied Bengal until 1576, when it was conquered by the armies of the Emperor Acber, and in 1580 formed into a soubah, by Raja Tooder Mull.

The Governors of Bengal under the Mogul dynasty, were

1576\. Khan Jehan.
1579\. Muzuffer Khan
1580\. Raja Tooder Mull.
1582\. Khan Azim.
1584\. Shahbaz Khan.
1589\. Raja Maun Singh.
1606\. Cuttub ud Deen Kokultash.
1607\. Jehangir Cooly.
1608\. Sheikh Islam Khan.
1613\. Cossim Khan.
1618\. Ibrahim Khan.
1622\. Shah Jehan.
1625\. Khanezad Khan.
1626\. Mokurrem Khan.
1627\. Fedai Khan.
1628\. Cossim Khan Jobung.
1632\. Azim Khan. During the government of this viceroy, A.D. 1634, the English oo a ned permission to trade with their ships to Bengal, in consequence of a firmaun from the emperor Shah Jehan, but were restricted to the port of Pipley, in Orissa, where they established their factory.

1639\. Sultan Shujah, the second son of Shah Jehan, and brother of Aurungzebe. In 1642 Mr. Day, the agent who had so successfully established the settlement at Madras, proceeded on a voyage of experiment to Balasore; from whence he sent the first regular despatch received by the Court of Directors from Bengal, recommending a factory at Balasore. In 1656, owing to the extortion and oppression which the Company experienced, their factories were withdrawn from Bengal.

1660\. Meer Jumla

1664 Shaista Khan. During the government of this viceroy, the French and Danes established themselves in Bengal He expelled the Mughs of Arracan from the island of Sundeep, and his administration was in other respects able and prosperous, although described by the East-India Company's agents of that period in the blackest colours.

1677\. Fedai Khan.

1678\. Shaista Khan was re-appointed. This year Mr. Job Charnock was restored to the situation of chief at Cossimbazar; and in 1681 Bengal was constituted a distinct agency from that of Fort St. George or Madras. On the 20th December 1686, in consequence of a rupture with the foujdar, or native military commander at Hooghly, the agent and council returned from Hooghly to Chuttanuttee or Calcutta, considering the latter as the safest station.

1689\. Ibrahim Khan. In 1693 Mr. Job Charnock died, and was succeeded by Mr. Eyre; the sea of

A D.

the Company's trade continuing at Chuttanuttee In 1693 Sir John Goldesborough was sent out as general superintendent and commissary of all the Company's possessions; but he died in Bengal in 1694, having confirmed Mr Eyre as chief In 1695, during the rebellion of Soobha Singh, the Dutch at Chinsura, the French at Chandernagore, and the English at Chuttanuttee, requested permission to put their factories in a state of defence, and the viceroy having in general terms assented, they proceeded with great diligence to raise walls, bastions, and regular fortifications, the first permitted to foreigners by the Moguls within their dominions

1697 Azim U'shaun, the grandson of Aurengzebe In 1700 this prince, in consideration of a valuable present, permitted the agents of the East-India Company to purchase three townships, with the lands attached, adjacent to their fortified factory, *viz* Chuttanuttee, Govindpoor, and Calcutta, Mr. Eyre, the chief, in consequence of instructions from home, having strengthened the works of the fort, it was named Fort William, in compliment to the king

1704 Moorshed Cooly, or Jaffier Khan This nabob in 1704 transferred the seat of government from Dacca to Moorshedabad, as being more central The annual surplus revenue during his administration, which comprehended also Cuttack, amounted from 130 to 150 lacks of rupees (£1,500,000) and was regularly transmitted to Delhi every February, accompanied by valuable presents In 1706 the whole stock of the United East-India Company had been removed to Calcutta, where the garrison consisted of 129 soldiers, of whom sixty-six were Europeans, exclusive of the gunner and his crew.

1725 Shujah-ud-Deen, son in law of the late governor, who was succeeded by his son,

1732 Serferaz Khan; who was dethroned and killed in battle by

1740 Aliverdi Khan. It does not appear that this nabob ever remitted any part of the revenue to Delhi After the invasion of Hindostan by Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul, and the death of the Emperor Mahomed Shah in the following year, the Mogul empire may be considered as annihilated beyond the immediate vicinity of Delhi

1756 Seraje-ud-Dowlah, grandson to the late nabob, in April this year took undisputed possession of Bengal, Bahar, and a portion of Orissa, but it does not appear that he ever applied for, or received investiture from Delhi. On the 20th June he captured Calcutta, and shut up the prisoners, 146 in number, in a room twenty feet square, where they all perished except twenty-three On the 1st January 1757, Calcutta was retaken by Admiral Watson and Col Clive; on the 20th June the nabob was defeated at Plassey, and early in next July was assassinated by order of Meerun, the son of his successor, in the twentieth year of his age, and fifteenth month of of his reign On learning, in 1757, this important conquest, the Court of Directors established a sort of rotatory government, by the enactments of which, four of their civil servants were appointed directors in Calcutta, to succeed each other every three months, from which favoured list of periodical rulers the name of Clive was excluded, but this nondescript constitution, as may be supposed, was of very transient duration. For the subsequent native princes of Bengal, see the article MOORSHEDABAD,

as from this era may be dated the commencement of the British government of this province, although the dewanny, or authority to collect the revenue, was not obtained from the Delhi sovereign until 1765.

On taking a retrospect of the preceding century, it appears that from the establishment of Aurengzebe on the imperial throne until the invasion of Nadir Shah, a period of eighty years, Bengal enjoyed profound peace without, and experienced only a few transient commotions internally. Under the government of the two last legitimate viceroys, Jaffier Khan and Shujah Khan, who ruled in succession nearly forty years, the state of the country was eminently flourishing, and the taxes little felt, although the annual tribute remitted to Delhi was usually a crore (ten millions) of rupees; the zemindars paying their land-tax directly into the royal treasury, without the intervention of local collectors on the part of the sovereign. Even after the usurpation of Aliverdi Khan, the zemindars were so opulent, as at one time to make him a donation of a crore of rupees, and another of fifty lacks, towards defraying the extra expenses incurred in repelling the incursions of the Maharattas. Bengal had then few political relations to maintain, and was never exposed to invasion at any time except from the west; the military establishment was consequently inconsiderable, and the general arrangement of the civil administration remarkable for economy, simplicity, and despatch.

In the first period of British administration, from 1757 to 1765, the provinces, with the exception of a few districts ceded to the Company, were continued under the government of the nabobs, to whom the distribution of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue, and the general powers of internal superintendence, were delegated; the British reserving the direction of foreign policy, a controlling military influence, and more considerable commercial advantages than had ever been conceded by the grants of emperors, or the prior usages of the country. In 1765 the dewanny was obtained by Lord Clive from the Emperor Shah Allum, under the condition of paying him twenty-six lacks of rupees annually, besides securing him a considerable tract of territory in Upper Hindostan, both which he forfeited in 1771 by putting himself voluntarily into the power of the Maharattas. This important and most valuable acquisition, observes a native historian (Seid Gholaum Hossein), was settled without hesitation or argument, as easily as the purchase of an ass or any other animal, without envoys or reference, either to the King of England or to the Company.

Lord Clive returned to England in 1767, and was succeeded in the government by Mr. Verelst; and on his departure, in December 1769, by Mr. Cartier. The crops of 1768 and 1769 proved scanty, and throughout the month of October 1769 scarcely a drop of rain fell. The almost total failure of a third crop, after the deficiency of two preceding ones, filled the miserable inhabitants with consternation and dismay. Some reliance was still placed on the crops of inferior grain, usually reaped between February and April: but the refreshing showers that commonly fall between these months also failed, no rain descending until late in the latter month. The heat in consequence became insupportable, and every sort of herb was in a great degree dried to a powder. The result was universal despondence, and a too well-founded apprehension of impending destruction, for the same calamity extended to Upper Hindostan, and no adjacent country was capable of furnishing an adequate supply.

The British administration and the native officers took the alarm at an early period, and adopted such precautionary measures as were in their power. In September 1769 the British and all their dependents were absolutely prohibited from trading in grain, and strict injunctions were,

with doubtful policy, promulgated against the hoarding of grain, or dealing in it clandestinely; and as a measure of necessity, 60,000 maunds were stored for the subsistence of the army. For these exertions the natives were principally indebted to Mr. Becher, of the civil service, who yet on his return to England found himself traduced as the author of the famine, and the purchase of a stock of rice for the army may have assisted to suggest the notion of a monopoly

In the northern districts of Bengal the famine raged so early as November 1769, and before the end of April had spread universal desolation. Rice rose gradually to four, and at length ten times its usual cost, and even at these prices was to a vast multitude unattainable Thousands crawled forth to the fields, and endeavoured, by knawing the bark and chewing the bitter and astringent leaves of trees, to prolong their miserable existence. In the country the highways and fields were strewed with the dying and the dead, in towns the streets and passages were choked up with them. Vast numbers flocked to Moorshedabad, the capital, and supplies for that quarter were eagerly sought. Subscriptions were liberally made, and the Company, the Nabob, the ministers, and European and native individuals, largely contributed to the feeding of the poor. In Moorshedabad alone 7,000 were daily fed for several months, and the same practice was adopted in other places; but the good effect of these charitable endeavours was scarcely perceptible amidst the general mortality In and around the capital, it became necessary to keep a set of persons constantly occupied in removing the dead, who were placed on rafts by hundreds and floated down the river. At length, the persons employed in this sad vocation fell victims to the noxious effluvia, and for a time, dogs, vultures, and jackals were the only scavengers. The air became offensive, and resounded with the frantic cries of all ages and sexes in the agonies of death. In many places entire families, in others whole villages, became extinct; forbidden and abhorrent food was resorted to; the child fed on its dead parent, and the mother on her child. A gloomy calm at length succeeded, and it was found that death had ended the miseries of so great a proportion of the cultivators, that when the new crop reached maturity, in many parts no proprietor remained to claim it. The number cut off during this period of horror has been variously estimated, but probably exceeded three millions; and although the desolation was of such uncontrollable magnitude as to be evidently beyond the power of man either to prevent or inflict, yet in England it was ascribed to the very persons who endeavoured to alleviate its ravages, and even to others who were not in the country when it commenced. Nor did the total impossibility of establishing a monopoly of grain, prevent a general belief in the western world, that the inhuman expedient had been resorted to by the servants of the East-India Company. The calumny originated in the French settlement of Chandernagore, and from thence was transmitted to Paris, London, and Europe generally, where it has been registered as truth in the page of history, has been made the subject of religious lamentation, has been immortalized in verse, and, such is the power of perverse credulity, is still considered as an indelible stain on the British character, yet is wholly a phantom, and never had the slightest foundation in fact.

In 1772 Mr. Hastings was appointed governor, and next year, by the interference of the British legislature, a new constitution was given to Bengal, and a majority of the members that were to administer it sent from England, the others being selected from the existing council. About the same period, 1772, English supervisors were sent into the districts to superintend the collection of the revenue, by which measure the British government stood forward as dewan, an office hitherto executed by native functionaries, residing at

Moorshedabad, the old seat of government, and of the public exchequer. These native ministers, with the officers they employed in the provinces, were now laid aside, and the Company, by the aid of their own European servants, undertook the collection of the revenue. Along with *their former controlling power, the* governor and council joined the actual cognizance and executive management, which until then had remained vested in the native ministers. The ostensible seat of government and of the exchequer was removed to Calcutta, the province subdivided *into collectorships, and a European* civil servant stationed in each district as a revenue collector.

This alteration transferred to the English the civil administration of justice, and every interposing medium between them and their Indian subjects being displaced, they came *to transact business immediately with* each other. The direct authority of the British now pervaded the interior, and the native or country government was abrogated, both in form and fact, with the exception of the nabob's remaining function, that of chief criminal magistrate. The pub*lic functionaries then* (1772) commenced their operations, and apparently with a very strong desire to alleviate the sufferings of the people: but, owing to the novelty of the task, committed many errors, both in finance and the administration of justice, which rather tended to aggravate them. *On this occasion* sufficient attention was not paid to the essential distinction between the landholder, having an interest in the soil, and the revenue servant, whose object was of course, not the permanent welfare of the district under his management, but the temporary realization of the greatest possible revenue.

Mr. Hastings continued in the government until 1785, when he returned to Europe, and was succeeded by Sir John Macpherson. From the *period of the revolution in 1757, the* British in Bengal entered into no external offensive alliances, pursuing *the system recommended by* Lor[d] Clive, which was, to avoid scheme[s] of conquest and political intrigue, t[o] improve the domestic condition o[f] the provinces, and to procure respec[t] by moderation and good faith. [A] deviation from this principle, however, began in 1774, having for ob*ject the pecuniary advantage of th[e]* Company; and in 1778 a much wide[r] deviation took place, by the carryin[g] on of offensive war, with a view t[o] the acquisition of territory in th[e] west of India. By these measure[s] an enormous debt was incurred, an[d] the public resources greatly exhaust*ed; to which evils* succeeded the at tack of Hyder Ali on the Carnati[c] and a defensive war against him an[d] his allies, the French, the support o[f] which fell wholly on Bengal. On thi[s] emergency the legislature again interfered, and regulations were enacte[d] to correct the evils then prevalent *and also to invigorate the authorit[y]* of the home administration of India[n] affairs.

Lord Cornwallis reached Bengal i[n] September 1786, and during his government the last period took place o[f] the British territorial administration o[f] Bengal, the land revenue having bee[n] *permanently fixed, and the same en*joyment of rights secured to all th[e] inferior occupants of the soil. Ver[y] essential reforms were also made i[n] the administration of justice. Up t[o] this date the high station of suprem[e] criminal judge remained vested in th[e] nabob, represented by some Maho*medan delegate, who filled the* infe*rior courts* by sale with his own mea[n] retainers, who, to reimburse them*selves*, exercised every extortion an[d] oppression.

Under this destructive system th[e] country groaned, and with its exist ence the British government was just ly reproached. But, reluctant to touc[h] the last remaining prerogative of th[e] nabob, it long temporized, until th[e] evil became insupportable, when a[n] arrangement took place, by the con*ditions of which the nabob appoint*ed the Governor-general in counc[il] his delegate in the office of suprem[e]

criminal judge. Lord Cornwallis and the other members of that body then took upon themselves the duties of the office, removed the chief criminal court from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, invested the collectors of districts with magisterial powers, and established courts of circuit for the principal divisions of the country. This great department was in fact wholly renovated, and filled with men of principle and ability, having adequate salaries, and subject to the strongest responsibilities. Even Europeans were placed under the cognizance of these provincial laws, and the authority of the collector subsequently restricted to the mere receipt and disbursement of the revenue, (since modified), the distribution of justice being transferred to a distinct class of magistrates. Henceforward the law became the arbiter in all matters of property between the government and its subjects. For the administration of justice, the Hindoo and Mahomedan codes were in general made the standard for the respective sectaries of these religions, modified in some instances where they were barbarous and cruel, and improved in others having a relation t political economy; but continuing in force, so far as regards religious tenets, marriage, caste, inheritance, and some other points. During this important period the arrangement of the Company's army was new modelled, and its constitution greatly improved.

The government of the Marquis Cornwallis lasted until August 1793, when he was succeeded by Sir John Shore, afterwards Lord Teignmouth; who pursued the beneficial measures of his predecessor, which were subsequently nearly completed by the Marquis Wellesley. This nobleman reached India the 26th April 1798, and left Madras for England the 20th August 1805.

The Marquis Cornwallis arrived at Calcutta on his second mission in July 1805, and died at Ghazipoor, near Benares, the 5th of next October. He was succeeded by Sir George H. Barlow, who held the reins of government until the arrival of Lord Minto in July 1807. Lord Minto returned to Europe in 1813, and was succeeded by the Earl of Moira, afterwards Marquis of Hastings, who reached India in the October of that year. This nobleman held the reins of government until the 9th January 1823, when he resigned, and was succeeded provisionally by Mr. Adam, until the arrival of Lord Amherst, which took place on the 4th of August 1823.—(*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Public MS Documents, Sir H. Strachey, C. Grant, Fullarton, Ward, Wilson, Stewart, Crisp, J D Paterson, Harington, Mill, R. Grant, East, Gholaum Hossein, &c*)

BENGAL, BAY OF.—This portion of the Indian ocean has the figure of an equilateral triangle, very much resembling in shape, though larger in size, that formed by the continent of the Deccan and Southern India, and usually, but improperly, denominated the peninsula. On the west, one limb extends from Bengal to Ceylon; on the east from Bengal to Junk Ceylon; and the third across the bay from Ceylon to Junk Ceylon. Each limb may be estimated at 1,120 miles in length, and the whole is comprehended within the latitudes of 8° and 20° N. At the bottom of the bay the difference of longitude between the towns of Balasore and Chittagong on the opposite sides is 4° 53′.

The eastern coast of the bay is strewed over with numerous islands and chains of islands, varying in dimensions, elevation, and other circumstances, while on the western coast not one is to be found from Ceylon to Bengal. Neither does the west coast possess one good harbour for large ships, whereas the opposite coast affords abundance, such as Arracan, Cheduba, Negrais, Syriam, Martaban, Tavoy, King's Island, Junk Ceylon, Pulo Lada, and the Mergui Archipelago. In other respects also the two shores differ considerably; Coromandel, thirty miles from the

beach, has no soundings; the east coast has soundings two degrees off. Coromandel is comparatively a clear country; the east coast of the bay is covered with wood. Coromandel is often parched with heat, from the winds blowing over barren sands; the east coast is always cool. On the west coast the mouths of the rivers are barred with sand; on the east coast they are deep and muddy. Coromandel has often destructive gales; the east coast has seldom any.

The numerous rivers that flow into the bay bring down such vast quantities of slime, mud, and sand, that the sea appears turbid at a great distance from the shore. In these parts the tides and currents run with great velocity; and when counter currents meet a rippling is formed, extending several miles in a straight line, attended with a noise resembling breakers.

The winds in the bay of Bengal are said to blow six months from the north-east, and the other six from the south-west; this is not precisely the case, but it is sufficiently accurate for general purposes It is remarkable that in many parts of India, during March and April, there are on shore strong winds blowing directly from the sea, while in the offing it is a perfect calm; thus at Bengal there are in that season very strong southerly winds, while in the bay calms prevail until May and June. On the coast of Malabar the south-west monsoon does not commence blowing with strength until the beginning of the rainy season; but on shore there are strong westerly winds from about the vernal equinox —(*Forrest, Johnson, Rennel, F. Buchanan, Finlayson, &c*)

Bengermow.—A considerable town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, situated on an elevated spot of ground, forty-four miles W from Lucknow, lat 26° 54′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Bensrode.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-one miles E.N E. from Oojein; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E.

Bentotte.—A village on the west coast of Ceylon, much celebrated for the excellence of its oysters; lat. 6° 24′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E., thirty-eight miles S.S.E. from Columbo.

BERAR.

A large province of the Deccan, situated between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude, the limits of which do not appear to have ever been correctly defined To the north it is bounded by Candeish and Malwa; on the south by Aurungabad and Beeder; to the east it has the extensive province of Gundwana; and on the west Candeish and Aurungabad. In 1582 it was described by Abul Fazel, in the Institutes of Acber, as follows. "The ancient names of this soubah are Durdatutt, Roodavoodyatt, and Fitkener. It is situated in the second climate; the length from Puttaleh to Beeragurh is 200 coss, and the breadth from Bunder to Hindia measures 180 coss. On the east it joins to Beeragurh; on the north is Settarah; on the south Hindia; and on the west Telingana It is divided into the following districts, viz. 1. Kaweel; 2. Poonar; 3 Kehrleh; 4. Nernalah, 5. Kullem, 6. Bassum; 7. Mahore; 8. Manickdurg, 9. Patna; 10 Telinganeh; 11. Ramgur, 12. Bheker; 13. Puffyaleh."

It will be perceived that the province of Berar, as described by Abul Fazel, differs materially from the modern acceptation of the name, the former including (but improperly) the whole region from Dowlatabad to Orissa, the eastern portion of which was certainly not subdued, and probably but very indistinctly known to the Emperor Acber or his functionaries. Nagpoor has generally been considered the capital, and its sovereign named the Berar Raja; but this is a mistake, as the city of Nagpoor stands in Gundwana, the proper capital of Berar being Ellichpoor. The soubah of Berar was formed while Acber reigned, from conquests made south of the Nerbudda; but the

eastern quarter of the Deccan, as assigned by Abul Fazel, was never thoroughly subdued, or even explored, by any Mahomedan ruler. The principal geographical subdivisions of note at present are,

1. Beytalbarry. 5. Waussim
2. Nernallah. 6. Mahore.
3. Gawelghur. 7. Kullum.
4. Maihker.

The modern province is centrally situated, being nearly at an equal distance from the Bay of Bengal and the western coast of India. Berar Proper is an elevated valley, ascended by a chain of ghauts or mountain passes, extending from Adjuntee to the Wurda river, which were surveyed in 1816 by engineer officers from Madras. The section of this chain, extending from Adjuntee to Lucknawanee, a distance of fifty-seven miles, having been the routes of ingress and egress of the Pindarries, was subject to stricter investigation than the rest, a description, therefore, of this portion will furnish a tolerable idea of the whole.

The general circumstances of the range are entirely the same, and their aspect nearly so, presenting merely a succession of high grounds, with here and there a small peak visible above the rest, the deep breaks and ravines, which lead in some places to a gentle, and in others to an abrupt descent into the valley of Berar, being only perceived when nearly approached. Some of these ghauts are impassable for carriages, laden camels, or bullocks; some for horses, and some are mere hill paths. The surface of the hills in this section of the chain is covered with loose stones and low jungle, and but little cultivation is seen, neither is there any timber large enough for building, although enough may be found for stockades, or revetments for an earthen parapet, if wanted to barricade a pass. About Botalghaut some trees of larger size occur. The Badoolah ghaut is the easiest ascended, and is the one most frequented by natives and travellers. In 1816 a great proportion of the villages near the hills were found uninhabited; and the tract of country along their summits, from Buldaunah to Murr, was equally desolate, the soil being apparently unappropriated. A considerable proportion of the villages are subject to the Nizam; but others towards the north-west belonged to the Peshwa, and have of course devolved to the British government. In the vicinity of Soulut the range between Ajuntee and Lucknawaree attains its greatest elevation, and with the exception of a few projecting points, the face in general resembles a perpendicular wall Owing to the extent of these chains, and their numerous openings, which permit horse to pass in almost every part, any plan of defence against predatory cavalry is impracticable.

Even before the desolating invasions of the Pindarries, the Nizam's portion of Berar between Jaulna and the Tuptee was thinly inhabited and little cultivated, although the soil is naturally rich, as is proved by the abundance of fine grass it spontaneously produces The soil in this quarter is the black cotton, so generally prevalent through the Deccan and south of India. The grains most cultivated in Berar are wheat, Indian corn, Bengal gram, peas, and vetches; flax also is raised. These are all sown about the end of the rains in September and October, and are ripe in January. The Nagpoor wheat is reckoned the most productive and nutritious in India, and requires only three months to come to perfection. When distilled it yields an excellent spirit resembling whiskey, but not quite so good. The second crop, which is Indian corn, is sown after the violent rains of June and July, ripens in October, and with wheat forms the chief subsistence of the inhabitants.

The largest rivers of Berar are the Tuptee, two streams both named Poorna, one flowing east and the other west; the Wurda, the Pain Gunga. The towns of most note are, Ellichpoor, Mulcapoor, Baulapoor, Akoat, Akolah, Nernallah, Gawelghur, and Omrawutty. A great pro-

portion of the inhabitants are Hindoos, but from various causes the country has never attained any remarkable degree of prosperity, indeed for many years past its decline has been progressive, more especially of the portion transferred to the Nizam in 1804 Such commerce as exists, is merely that of itinerant inland carriers, so numerous all over the Deccan, and in one particular instance is promoted by a singular practice prevalent among the lowest tribes of Berar and Gundwana, who not unfrequently vow to perform suicide in gratitude for boons solicited from idols, and in their opinion obtained. In fulfilment of their promise the successful votary throws himself from a precipice named Cala Bhairava, situated in the mountains between the Tuptee and Nerbudda. The annual fair held near the spot early in spring, usually witnesses eight or ten victims to this superstition, and at the same time much business is transacted by merchants and others attracted to the spot by the expected immolations.

Among the states that arose on the ruins of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, A.D. 1510, one consisted of the southern portion of Berar, and was named the Ummad Shahy dynasty, from its founder Ummad ul Mulk, but it only lasted four generations, when it fell under the dominion of Ahmednugger, A D. 1574, and under the Mogul sway towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century When that great empire relaxed the strength of its grasp, the province was overrun by rapacious hordes of Maharattas, and was for some years almost equally divided between the Peshwa and the Raja of Nagpoor. The latter, having in an evil hour put himself forward as the Ally of Dowlul Row Sindia, his share was, in 1804, transferred to the Nizam, with whom great part of the modern province still remains, and suffers much misgovernment.

The whole of the Nizam's possessions north of the Godavery had for many years been infested by bands of freebooters, known by the names of Naiks and Bheels, who deprived the cultivators of their harvest, compelled merchants and travellers to hire large escorts, and by their cruelties and depredations kept the Berar province in a state of incessant commotion. The ranges of hills intersecting Berar had long been possessed by robbers, who either subsisted on direct plunder, or by levying contributions on the inhabitants and travellers, an exemption from rapine being purchased by stipulated payments in money. The cultivators secured their crops by giving a share to the freebooters, and travellers consented to a tax for permission to prosecute their journey in safety. In the course of time these duties became established and defined, and entitled the inhabitants to protection from all extraneous depredation. The Nizam's government, knowing from experience the difficulty of extirpating these marauders, whose dens were situated in the fastnesses of mountains inaccessible to the operations of regular troops, considered it good policy to acquiesce in a settlement which it had not power to prevent, and which, to a certain degree, protected the traders and cultivators. The ministers at Hyderabad in consequence not only sanctioned the engagements, but provided for the regular payment of the compulsory duties, gave lands to the Naiks, and occasionally employed them in the service of the state.

Owing to the famines of 1807 and 1808, many villages in Berar were deserted, and the Naiks and Bheels lost the contributions they had so long been accustomed to exact. To make up the deficiency they took advantage of the distracted state of the country, and extended their ravages, in which proceeding they were joined by many needy adventurers from all parts of the province, and by some troops from the disbanded armies of Sindia, Holkar, and the Nagpoor Raja Their parties gradually became more formidable, and as the difficulty of subsistence increased with their numbers, their predatory

excursions became more extended, more frequent, and more destructive. Different bands occasionally quarrelled about the distribution of the booty when acquired, and many sanguinary engagements took place during the adjustment of their respective pretensions; but the result was, that large tracts of land were abandoned to wild beasts, and a great proportion of the villages deserted. The cultivators, finding no peace without, flocked eagerly to the walled towns, and even in their immediate vicinity the crops were not secure from the attacks of the Bheels, large bodies of whom ranged unrestrained throughout the country. Raja Mohiput Ram, the Nizam's viceroy in Berar, either from indolence, despair of success, or with the view of employing them for his own exigencies, not only took no measures to suppress them, but was suspected of affording them secret encouragement, and of sharing their plunder. Raja Govind Buksh, another of the Nizam's officers, often endeavoured to check their rapine, but the Bheels managed always to evade such bodies of troops as they could not resist. The service against them was of so fatiguing and dangerous a description, that the Nizam's officers either shunned it, or undertook the task with apathy and reluctance. Cavalry could not act in the strong and rugged country to which the Bheels retreated, and even infantry could not penetrate their more secluded haunts.

These difficulties, however, might have been overcome, had not a still greater remained, which was the encouragement given to the banditti by many officers in the Nizam's service, and more especially by the Nabob Soobhan Khan. This faithful dignitary of the Nizam's court not only concerted the plundering expeditions of the Naiks, and supplied them with provisions and ammunition, but actually employed some of the government troops to assist them, receiving the plunder into the fortresses where he commanded as an officer of government, and retaining a share for his own benefit, estimated in common years at five lacks of rupees. The Nizam's prime minister, Meer Allum, had often expressed his desire to liberate Berar from these oppressions, which had so absorbed the revenue that scarcely enough was left to pay the few troops stationed there. All efforts were found ineffectual so long as Soobhan Khan was permitted to retain his jaghires in the province, his conduct being so insolent and contumacious, as well as secretly favourable to the disorders he was employed to suppress.

In addition to these evils this miserable province suffered much from the Nizam's own troops, especially the cavalry, although ostensibly maintained for its defence at an enormous expense. These cavalry corps were of two descriptions: first, such as were paid directly by the local government of Berar from the revenues of the province; secondly, those supported by different chieftains in consideration of military jaghires conferred on them. The first description, by far the most numerous, was composed, like all the irregular horse of India, of small independent squads, raised and commanded by different sirdars. On any emergency these squads were united into one large body, when the command was generally bestowed either on some favourite, or on some individual able to conciliate by bribery the good-will of those in power. Although this faulty organization was sufficient of itself to render such corps unserviceable, a still greater cause of their insufficiency arose from their mode of payment. Each jemadar of a squad hired his party to the chieftain, for a sum varying from forty-five to fifty-five rupees per horseman for which the jemadar engaged to furnish a horse, rider, accoutrements, and ammunition. Every loss or casualty was borne by himself, so that it was not only his interest to avoid danger, but also to maintain his party at the smallest possible expense. To counteract this tendency a muster-master was appointed by the Nizam; but

this functionary was not unfrequently prevailed upon to connive at the imposition on the government, and was nearly as often imposed on himself. Hence many of these horses had no existence but on paper, and many others were never visible but on muster day. The second description of cavalry above alluded to was that of the jaghiredars, organized in the same manner as the first, and, with some honourable exceptions, equally inefficient. The muster-roll of the first description gave 7,150, and of the second 4,340; but the effective numbers never were ascertained; and in addition to these Salabut Khan, one of the jaghiredars, was bound to maintain 2,000 infantry When Colonel Doveton repaired to Berar and took charge, he found that any endeavours to improve these corps, constituted as they were, would be unavailing, and that in point of fact they were as much dreaded as the Pindarries, by the peaceful inhabitants they were sent to protect

The Nizam's regular infantry stationed in Berar were considered the most effective of his forces, and composed the contingent he was bound to furnish in the event of a joint war taking place Those, however, serving under Raja Mohiput Ram could not be depended on, as they consisted of sepoys who had formed the corps of M Raymond, and never could be brought to adopt the British discipline, but remained dressed in the French costume, practised the French exercise, and employed French words of command. The person who in reality commanded these troops, and possessed considerable influence over them, was a Spaniard named Clementi D'Avila, steadily attached to Mohiput Ram, and, as well as his troops, notoriously hostile to the British cause. Most of the other officers were low adventurers, ready to engage in any dispute, and the half-caste men were distinguished from the natives merely by wearing a hat.

Under these untoward circumstances, Meer Allum, the Nizam's prime minister in 1807, nominated Raja Govind Buksh (the brother of Raja Chundoo Loll) to supersede his enemy Raja Mohiput Ram in the civil government of Berar, and at the same time recommended that a proportion of the British subsidiary force should be stationed in that province. The good effects that had been anticipated from this measure by the minister, were very soon made manifest by a succession of events. Raja Mohiput Ram, on receiving notice of his supersession, attempted to collect troops under pretence of having been ordered with them to Hyderabad, but the leading jaghiredars and military chieftains disregarded his orders Being thus frustrated in his martial projects, he entertained the design of escaping with his treasure, but subsequently relinquished it, probably on account of his family being at the capital, where he endeavoured by intrigues to obtain permission to join them, but Suggur was fixed on fo the future place of his residence. The restless nature of his ambition, however, ere long drove him into open rebellion, when his troops, amounting to 6,000 men, were attacked by a Nizam's detachment, consisting of 3,000 cavalry and 1,300 infantry, when, owing to the dastardly conduct of the cavalry, the rebels proved victorious, killing and wounding nearly the whole of the infantry Upon this disaster, a part of the British subsidiary force was marched against him, and in a very short campaign effectually subdued his troops, and compelled himself to surrender After infinite difficulty, from the caprice and perverseness of the Nizam's character, which could only be surmounted by the direct interference of the British government, Soobhan Khan, the other disaffected nabob, was removed from Berar to the capital, and Clement D'Avila, from whom resistance had been expected, submitted in the most peaceable manner, merely requesting permission to proceed to Goa.—(*Captain Sydenham, Lieut Bayley, Abul Fazel, Rennell, Heune, Ferishta, Colebrooke, Leckie, &c.*)

Bereng.—A town in Cashmere, thirty-seven miles E. from the city of Cashmere, near to which is a long defile in a mountain, containing a reservoir of water seven ells square, considered by the Hindoos a place of great sanctity.

Berhampoor (*Barhanpura*).—A town in Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Bhagirathi, or Cossimbazar river, about six miles south from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 4′ N., lon. 89° 14′ E. A brigade of native and European troops are stationed here in commodious barracks, which form a noble square, separated from the river by a fine esplanade, with a hospital, bazar, and other buildings to the north.

Bernagur (*Virnagara*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, five miles north from the city, lat. 24° 16′ N., lon. 88° 13′ E.

Bernaver.—A town in the Delhi province, thirty-three miles N by E from the city of Delhi; lat 29° 8′ N, lon 77° 16′ E.

Berodeh.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty miles E. from Alvar; lat. 27° 44′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E

Berud (*tribe*).—See Padshahpoor.

Beroli.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles north from Ditteah; lat. 25° 51′ N., lon 78° 28′ E.

Berowni.—A small native fortification in the province of Allahabad, five miles north from Ditteah; lat. 25° 51′, lon. 78° 21′ E.

Besuki (*Vasuki*).—A town and small district in Java, situated near the eastern extremity of the island. It is but indifferently supplied with water, and has very little land fit for cultivation that is not already under cultivation; but it is better peopled in proportion than the adjacent districts. The town of Besuki stands in lat. 7° 40′ S, lon. 113° 35′ W, 633 miles E. from Batavia.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

Bess River.—This river issues from the great tank of Bhopaul, in the province of Malwa, and proceeding in a north-easterly direction, joins the Betwah or Betwuntah, one mile north of Bhilsa. At Islamghur it is joined by the Patna, a small river that flows from the lesser tank of Bhopaul.

Bessely Ghaut (*Busavali Ghat*).—A pass through the western range of mountains leading from Mysore to the maritime province of Canara.

Betaison.—A town and place of pilgrimage in the Agra province, situated on the Jumna, thirty-five miles S E from Agra; lat. 26° 57′, lon. 78° 24′ E Near to this place are the remains of Sarapura, an ancient Hindoo city.—(*Tod, &c.*)

Bettiah (*Bhaltia, named also Chumparun*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, ninety miles N N W from Patna, lat. 26° 47′ N, lon 84° 40′ E.

Bettooriah (*Bhitoria*).—A subdivision of the great zemindarry of Rajeshahy, in the province of Bengal. A D 1396, Raja Cansa, the Hindoo zemindar of this tract, rebelled against Shums ud Deen, the Mahomedan sovereign of Bengal, who was defeated and slain On this event Raja Cansa seated himself on the vacant throne, which, after a reign of seven years, he transmitted to his son Cheetmul; who turning Mahomedan, reigned under the more sonorous appellation of Sultan Jellal ud Deen.

Betwa (*Vetava*), or **Betwuntee River.**—This river rises in the province of Gundwana, three miles south-west of the Shahpoor ghaut, enters Malwa about sixteen miles east of Bhopaul, and afterwards receives the accession of many streams until it reaches Erich, where it winds eastward through a broken rocky ridge, which causes a rapid, and afterwards joins the Jumna below Calpee, having completed a serpentine course of

about 340 miles in a north-easterly direction. Although during the rains a considerable body of water flows through its channel, it does not appear to be navigable at any time of the year.

Beyah (*Vipasa*) River (*the Hyphasis*).—This is the fourth river of the Punjab of Lahore, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. The Beas (*vyas*) Gunga and the Ban (*vana*) Gunga are said to form the Beyah, the first passing Kote Kaungrah to the south, and the latter to the northward, both in a westerly direction, joining at Hurreepoor, one march below the fort, one passing on each side and uniting below so as to form an island. Abul Fazel writes that the source of the Beyah, named Abyekoond, is in the mountains of Keloo, pergunnah of Sultanpoor

After issuing from the hills this river flows in a south-westerly direction, and at Bhirowal ghaut in 1809, when the floods were at the highest, measured 740 yards across, the stream passing with a rapid current, and a high bank on the right side. In the cold season it is fordable here at most places, but in its bed are many quicksands, and when the waters are low many islands and sandbanks are left exposed. The Beyah joins the Sutuleje thirty-five miles below Bhirowal, near Hurraka, and not far from Ferozepoor, after which conjunction the united streams are first named Beas, and further on Gurrah, by which appellation it is also known at Gordeean ghaut, near Pakputtun, 160 miles above Bahawulpoor, and 100 S S.W. from Lahore. The Beyah and Sutuleje, at their confluence, are nearly the same size, but the last is rather the largest. Their course also is nearly the same from the snowy ridge, 150 miles, to their junction, and 260 more to where they unite with the aggregated waters of the Jhylum, Chinaub, and Ravey. The total length of its course, including windings, may be estimated at 590 miles. In 1805 Lord Lake pursued Jeswunt Row Holkar to the banks of this river, where he sued for peace and concluded a treaty.—(*Macartney, Rennel, &c.*)

Beykaneer.—See Bicanere.

Beylah.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated towards the northern extremity, fifty-eight miles N.E. from Anjar; lat. 23° 41′ N., lon. 70° 50′ E The site of Beylah is commanding, as a military post, to check the plunderers from the desert.

Beyhar (*Vihar*)—A town in Bengal, the modern residence of the Cooch Bahar rajas, thirty-two miles N.E. from Rungpoor, lat. 26° 18′ N., lon 89° 22′ E.

Beyrusia—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Oojein, which in 1820 had a small stone ghurry, and contained 300 houses.

Beytulbarry.—A small district in the Berar province, situated south of the Ajuntee ghaut, between the twentieth and twenty-first degrees of north latitude, respecting which scarcely any thing is known. Except Ajuntee, it does not appear to contain any place of note.

Bezoara (*Byoia*)—A town in the Northern Circars, forty-one miles N W. from Masulipatam; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E. The stream of the Krishna is here confined between two bold projecting mountains, which form a strait 1,100 yards broad. Lower down the river expands to the width of a mile, but is still bounded on all sides by fine mountain scenery. The great thoroughfare between the Circars and the Carnatic is by the ferry of Bezoara, which is provided with some large deep boats, besides abundance of catamarans, formed by two palmyra trunks lashed together and platformed with boards.

The town, or rather village of Bezoara, is peopled with Brahmins and beggars. At one extremity is a well-built Mahomedan serai and mosque, in the style of Upper Hindostan,

and apparently a modern erection. The rocks above are also embellished with picturesque Hindoo temples, and several cave temples have been formed in the body of the mountain, and another in a conical hill on the opposite side of the Krishna. They are, however, very inferior to the meanest of the Hindoo excavations in the west of India. The bungalow maintained here for the accommodation of travellers commands a fine prospect over the surrounding country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bhadrinath (*Vadarinatha*).—A town and temple situated on the west side of the Alacananda river, in the centre of a valley about four miles long, and one where broadest, lat. 30° 43′ N., lon. 79° 39′ E., eighty miles north from Almora in Kumaon, 10,294 feet above the level of the sea. The town is built on the sloping bank of the river, and in 1808 contained only about thirty huts for the accommodation of the Brahmins and other attendants on the temple, which is about forty-five feet high, of a conical form, with a small cupola, surmounted by a copper roof, over which is a golden ball and spire. The principal idol is three feet high, cut in black stone or marble, dressed in a suit of gold and silver brocade, the hands and feet only being uncovered. This temple, in 1808 was said to possess 700 villages in different parts of Gurwal and Kumaon, and the high priesthood is restricted to the remote Deccany Brahmins of the Chauli or Namburi tribes; indeed, latterly, the pontificate used to be put up to sale by the Gorkas. During the months of pilgrimage the deity is well clothed, fares sumptuously, and has a large establishment of servants, but on the approach of winter he is packed up in a vault along with the treasure, and the priests take their departure. The number of pilgrims who visit Bhadrinath annually has been estimated at 50,000, mostly religious mendicants and devotees from all quarters of India. The surrounding country is of the most gigantic altitude. The middle peak at the head of the Bhadrinath district, marked as No. 19 B. in Capt. Hodgson and Lieut. Herbert's survey, lat. 30° 44′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E., was found to be elevated 23,441 feet above the level of the sea.

At this place there is a warm bath, supplied by a spring of hot water that issues from the mountain with a thick steam and sulphurous smell; and close to it there is a cold spring. On the 29th of May 1808 masses of snow seventy feet thick remained undissolved, and the tops of the high mountains have probably never lost their white covering since the beginning of the world. A great majority of Hindoos, who know nothing of Bhadrinath except from books, imagine that many holy personages have retired to this asylum, where they have been living for several thousand years in quiet expectation of better times. To pilgrims who arrive with hopes of meeting these personages, a cavern is pointed out as the place of their residence: but as the excavation is choked up with snow, there is no danger of its inhabitants being disturbed until the return of the golden age.—(*Raper, F. Buchanan, Capt. Hodgson, Lieut. Herbert, &c.*)

Bhaga Singh.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-eight miles N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 48′ N., lon. 80° 13′ E., 7,635 feet above the level of the sea.

Bhagesur (*Bhaguswara*).—A mart in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, situated west of the Cali branch of the Goggra river, twenty-two miles E.N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 52′ N., lon. 79° 53′ E. Fairs are held here three times in the year, and are attended by traders from the low country.

Bhagwuntghur.—A Rajpoot village in the province of Ajmeer, sixteen miles N.W. from Rantampoor; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E.

Bhairava Math.—A Hindoo place of worship in Northern Hindos-

tan, situated among the sources of the Ganges, eight miles W.S.W. from Gangoutri.

Bhailode.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda, fifteen miles N.E. from Broach; lat. 21° 50′, lon. 73° 15′ E.

Bhambhora Ghur.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, district of Bussaher, situated on the lofty ridge between the Andryti and Matroti, two feeders of the Paber river; lat. 31° 14′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E. Elevation above the sea, 9,844 feet.

Bhanmo *(or Panmo)*.—A town in the Burmese dominions situated on the banks of the Irawaddy, 170 miles north from the city of Ava; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 96° 45′ E., twenty miles from the province of Yunan in China. This is the capital of one of the nine principalities of the Shans or Mrelap Shans, as they are designated by the Burmese. This principality is said to occupy the space between the Irawaddy and China, and is said to have been taken from the Chinese since the accession of the present Birman dynasty.—(*Symes, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bhanpoor.—A town in the province of Orissa, sixty-five miles S.W. from Cuttack; lat. 19° 48′ N. During the insurrection of the Pykes, this was for some time the head-quarters of the second battalion, eighteenth regiment of Bengal Native Infantry, commanded by Major William Hamilton, who along with nearly all his detachment fell a victim to the unhealthiness of the post. This officer joined the Bengal army in 1797, when only fifteen years of age, and on the 4th of May 1799 entered the breach at the storming of Seringapatam, with the grenadiers of his battalion. He afterwards served as a subaltern in many other quarters, during the intervals of leisure devoting his attention to the study of the Asiatic languages, in some of which (the Arabic, Persian, and Maharatta) he attained so remarkable a proficiency, that he was appointed under Mr. Elphinstone to the escorts at Poona and Nagpoor, with a view to his assistance in the diplomatic department. After taking the usual furlough to Europe, he rejoined the Bengal army, and served through the Nepaulese campaign; but, as happened to many other officers, without any opportunity of distinguishing himself. From the Himalaya mountains he was marched south to the salt swamps of Cuttack, where he met his fate on the 19th April 1818, at the premature age of thirty-seven, and now lies buried at Juggernauth. Like almost all really brave men, his manners were singularly gentle and inoffensive, and his disposition so kind and charitable, that he probably never had an enemy. By his personal friends he was sincerely beloved, and among these may be mentioned, as best known to fame, Sir John Malcolm and Sir James Mackintosh.

Bhanpoora.—A large town in the province of Malwa belonging to Holkar, situated on the Rewa river, district of Rampoora; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The fort here has never been completed. The walls are built of stone, and there is a palace within also unfinished. They were both begun by Jeswunt Row Holkar, of whom there is a carved marble statue, and the walls are likewise ornamented with sculpture. It is one of the best built towns in this quarter, and in 1820 was estimated to contain a population of 13,406 persons.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bhatee.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles north from Banda; lat. 25° 45′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

Bhatta.—A considerable town in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, forty-five miles S. by E. from Bhanpoora; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

Bhattia.—A town situated near the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula; lat. 22° 9′ N., lon. 69° 26′ E.

Bhatneer.—This town, the modern capital of the Bhatty tribe, is of some antiquity, as it was taken and destroyed by Timour, when he invaded Hindostan in 1398, when the surrounding country must have been in a much superior condition, or it would neither have attracted his notice or subsisted his vast army. It stands on the eastern verge of the great sandy desert, in lat. 29° 36′ N., lon. 74° 12′ E; about 130 miles N.N E from Bicanere, and 100 N W. from Hissar. The whole country west of Hissar to Bhatneer is an immense plain, in travelling over which the stages are long and water scanty. By the natives the soil is described as of a hard substance and blueish colour, so as at a distance to have the appearance of water. This town was taken from the Bhattees in 1807 by the Raja of Bicanere, who in 1810 still retained possession.—(*Lieut White, E Gardner, &c.*)

Bhatgong.—A city in northern Hindostan, and, before the Goorka conquests, the seat of an independent chief; lat 27° 40′ N., lon. 85° 8′ E.; eight miles E S E. from Catmandoo. It ranks the third of the Nepaulese valley, and thirty years ago was estimated to contain 12,000 houses; but, probably, the number was exaggerated by the native informant. The palace and other buildings have rather a striking appearance, owing chiefly to the excellent quality of the bricks and tiles, in the manufacture of which the Nepaulese excel. Its ancient name was Dharmapatan, by the Newars it is called Khopodais, from its resemblance to the dumbroo or guitar of Siva. Bhatgong is the Benares of the Gorkha dominions, and was supposed to contain many valuable Sanscrit manuscripts; but none have as yet been brought to European notice. It is also the favourite residence of the Nepaulese Brahmins, containing more families of that caste than Catmandoo and Lalita Patan together, but they are not in great repute either for learning or devotion. Of the lower classes a great proportion are Newars, the Khetri or military tribe flocking to the capital for employment.—(*Kirkpatrick, F. Buchanan, &c*)

Bhatties.—The country of the Bhatties is situated in the north-eastern quarter of the Ajmeer province, about the thirtieth degree of north latitude, and, until the progress of events brought the British arms into their vicinity, were scarcely known even by name. It is difficult to assign limits to such a country and such a people, both abhorrent of definition, but the following may be considered an approximation towards accuracy. To the north it may be described as limited by the combined streams of the Sutuleje and Beyah (the Hysudrus and Hyphasis), here named the Gurrah; on the south by the territories of the Bicanere Raja and the Shekawutties; on the east it has the district of Hurrianna, and protected chiefs in the Delhi province; and on the west the great sandy desert, of which it is almost an integral portion. The north-east corner, in some old maps named Latty Afghany, is still wholly unknown, although within a short distance of the British cantonments at Luddeeanna. This extensive tract of waste country forms a natural boundary to the British possessions in this quarter of Hindostan.

From the town of Futtehabad to Bhatneer, along the banks of the Cuggur river, is the part of the Bhatty territories best adapted for cultivation, being (it is reported) benefitted by the overflowing of that river; but respecting its source, course, and termination, our knowledge is still very imperfect. The land within the influence of this inundation is said to produce wheat, rice, and barley; the remainder of the Bhatty country, owing to the want of moisture, is mostly unfit for agricultural purposes. The Cuggur is now lost in the sands to the west of Bhatneer, although it is supposed formerly to have joined the Sutuleje in

the vicinity of Ferozepoor. In the month of March the tanks dry up rapidly, after which deep wells are the only resource for the parched cattle and their owners. Bhatneer and Batindeh are the principal Bhatty towns; but those best known to Europeans are situated in the vicinity of Hurrianna (where in some parts this tribe claim a right of pasturage), and are named Futtehabad, Sirsah, Raneah, Beerghur, and Beeranah. There is but little trade carried on in this community, the members of which have hitherto preferred thieving to every other vocation. With the exception of the sale of the surplus grain, ghee, and cattle (all insignificant except the last), they maintain but little intercourse with the neighbouring states, and that chiefly through petty traffickers of the Sheikh Furreed sect. Their imports are white cloth, sugar, and salt.

The Bhatties were originally shepherds, of whom various tribes are still found in the Punjab, and scattered over the high grounds east of the Indus from the sea to Ooch. In the institutes of Acber these hordes are by Abul Fazel named Ashambatty. Their chiefs were originally Rajpoots, but now Mahomedans; which faith has also been adopted by the lower castes, who were originally Jauts, They have long been noted as a plundering people, remarkable in Hindostan for carrying on their depredations on foot, and for the length and rapidity of their pedestrian excursions. The Bhatty females appear in public unveiled, and are not compelled to observe the strict seclusion so universal elsewhere among the followers of Mahomed.

Prior to the cession of Hurrianna to the British, the chief of the Bhatties was Khan Bahadur Khan, who in 1810 held twenty-one villages, including Futtehabad, Sirsah, and Raneah. It was then estimated that the force which the Bhatties could collect would not exceed 10,000 men, of whom not one-sixteenth possessed fire-arms. They were found, however, very expert in conducting a night attack, and would travel on their expeditions to a very unexpected distance. In the year above-mentioned Raneah formed the western boundary of Khan Bahadur's country, having an extensive tract of waste land on the north, west, and south. Bhatneer, the nearest town, is distant about forty road miles to the west. The town of Nehar lies forty-three road miles to the south, and belongs to a Shekawutty chieftain. The town of Tulwunda, subject to Raja Saheb Singh, stands about forty road miles to the north. Some years prior to the British conquests in this part of Hindostan, the revenues of Futtehabad, Sirsah, and Raneah were estimated at 40,000 rupees per annum. It is said to have since become less productive, on account of the banks which have been constructed across the Cuggur river by the Seik chiefs to the north-west, which have prevented these pergunnahs from receiving their due share of the stream. It was also calculated, that if the Bhatty country taken possession of had been retained, it would have yielded a revenue of 80,000 rupees per annum, although distress had been caused by a deficiency of rain in that arid region.

On the first occupation of Hurrianna in 1809, nothing was left undone by the British authorities to conciliate the Bhatties, who were assured that their frontier would no longer be disturbed by banditti from thence, as had hitherto been the case under all native governments. The Bhatty chiefs were in their turn solicited to restrain the predatory habits of their subjects, and suppress all aggressions on a friendly territory; but it was eventually found that they contemned all authority that interfered with their schemes of plunder. Bahadur Khan also declined affording his assistance, declaring he was apprehensive of being entrapped and made prisoner, as had happened during the Gallo-Maharatta sway in upper Hindostan.

All amicable overtures being rejected, and the aggressions on the inhabi-

tants of Hurrianna continuing, an expedition was marched into the Bhatty country in December 1810, under the command of Col. Adams when Bahadur Khan was expelled, and Futtehabad and other refractory towns submitted without resistance. On this occasion Zabeta Khan (the son of Bahadur Khan) joined the British camp, without stipulating for any terms; in consideration of which unconditional submission, all his country was restored to him, with the exception of Futtehabad, which was retained as a frontier post, from whence a garrison could superintend the motions of this unquiet race, whom it was difficult to wean from the predatory habits to which they had been accustomed from time immemorial. The towns of Beerghur and Beeraneh were also re-annexed to the district of Hurrianna, from which they had been separated In making these experiments, it was judged expedient that Zabeta Khan should receive back his territories unencumbered by any tributary engagement, as the payment of a tribute virtually implied an obligation on the superior power to protect its tributary, which might eventually have proved embarrassing, and was at the same time completely at variance with the fundamental maxim of British policy, as referring to the native principalities of Hindostan For some time afterwards tranquillity prevailed through the Bhatty country, but in 1818 they again became restless, and possessed themselves of Futtehabad, which had been held by the Seiks under the British authority. A strong detachment was in consequence again marched into the country, for the purpose of destroying all the petty forts, and expelling the agitators, which service was effected without encountering any serious opposition —(*Lieut White, George Thomas, Col. Adams, Archibald Seton, &c.*)

BHAVANI RIVER.—A river in the Coimbatoor province which flows past the town of Sattimungalum, and afterwards joins the Krishna at Bhavani Kudal

BHAVANI KUDAL.—A town in the Coimbatoor province, fifty-eight miles N E from the town of Coimbatoor; lat 11° 26′ N, lon 77° 44′ E. It stands at the conflux of the Bhavani and Cavery, on which account it is considered a place of superior sanctity, and much resorted to by the Hindoos. It also contains two celebrated temples, one dedicated to Vishnu, and the other to Siva.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHAWUR.—A pergunnah in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna. The section of this pergunnah situated to the west of the Tonse was formerly named Bucan, but now Dewghur, from being the spot where the sect and tenets of the Mahassoo Dewtah religion originated, since which epocha the Dewghur division has been considered holy land

According to Brahminical traditions, at a remote era of time, a man ploughing in the pergunnah of Bucan saw a snake, which, erecting itself before him, said, "I am the divinity of the place raise near this spot an image to be worshipped, and call it Mahassoo Dewtah, and it will reveal to you laws that are to be obeyed" On learning this vision of the cultivator some Brahmins made an image, and placed it in the field where the snake had appeared, and after some time had passed away, it was inspired to give them the following instructions, the observance of which secures the devout from the evils of the present world, and insures their happiness in that which is to come, *viz.*

1st. Never to sleep in a bed with four legs.

2d. Never to drink pure milk Butter-milk is permitted, but it is meritorious to abstain from the eating of butter, it being more praiseworthy to burn it at the shrines of the Mahassoo Dewtah or demigod.

3d Always to sacrifice the finest goats on the demigod's altar, and if similar sacrifices elsewhere be abstained from, so much the better.

Some time after the promulgation of this specimen of supernatural wis-

dom, the Brahmins removed the image to Oonooree, on the east bank of the Tonse, where it still remains, much venerated by the people, and its priesthood amply supplied with offerings.—(*Public MS. Documents, Birch, &c.*)

BHEEKUNGAUM.—A walled village with a mud fort belonging to Holcar, in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Kurgoond, fifty-two miles N.N.W. from Boorhampoor. This was formerly a large town, but so entirely ruined by the Pindarry incursions, that only seventy-five houses remained. In 1820 the inhabitants were returning, and one street was re-occupied.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

BHEELS.—See MALWA and CANDEISH.

BHEEMFED.—A small village in the Nepaulese territories situated on the Rapty, whence a road leads over the Cheesapany mountain; lat. 27° 33′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E., fourteen miles S.W. from Catmandoo. At this place the valley of the Rapty finishes, and the high mountains of Lama Dangra separate it from the country on the north, watered by the branches of the Bogmutty.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHEEMTAL LAKE.—A small but picturesque lake in northern Hindostan, among the mountains of Kumaon, twenty-nine miles travelling distance south from Almora, and on the high road from thence to Bamouri. The shape of this lake approaches the figure of a triangle, the length of the longest side being a mile, and of the shortest five furlongs; but it appears at some former period to have been considerably larger, and its decrease has been attributed to the depositions from the different streams flowing into it. About the centre its depth is eleven fathoms, and its elevation above the sea 4,271 feet. On the margin is a temple of Mahadeva or Siva, and the remains of an old Gorkha fort on an eminence to the south, below which stands the village of Bheemtal, consisting of a few miserable huts, with a government house for the accommodation of travellers, having a commissariat depôt attached. About two miles to the east of Bheemtal there is another small lake, equally beautiful, named the Naokoochea Tal, and the natives report that there are many others in the vicinity.—(*Fullarton, Webb, &c.*)

BHEINDUR.—A small town in the Ajmeer province, division of Chitore, situated on the Goompty river, thirty miles E. by S. from Odeypoor. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah, yielding a revenue of about 30,000 rupees per annum, to a relative of the Odeypoor Ranas; but the town did not contain more than 600 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BHEER.—A small district in the Nizam's dominions in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the 18th and 19th degrees of north latitude. This is a hilly tract of country, thinly peopled and ill governed; but respecting which almost nothing is known, as is the case with the Nizam's dominions generally. It is intersected by two small streams, the Sindpuna and Kundya. Bheer, the principal town, stands in lat. 19° 1′ N., lon. 75° 58′ E., seventy miles E. from Ahmednuggur.

BHILARAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, forty-seven miles N.E. from the city of Odeypoor; lat. 25° 26′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. In 1818 this place presented vestiges of former opulence and industry, but at that period, owing to the anarchy so long prevalent in Rajpootana, it was nearly roofless and depopulated.

BHIND.—A town in the Agra province south of the Chumbul, forty-six miles N.E. from Gualior; lat 26° 27′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

BHINDUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-four miles E.S.E. from Odeypoor. Lat. 24° 3′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E.

BHIRKOT.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, consisting of mountains, and containing neither mines or

mart; formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships, but at present subject to the Nepaulese; lat. 27° 58′ N., lon. 83° 48′ E.

BHIRA.—A town in the Lahore province, eighty-two miles N.W from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 10′ N, lon. 72° 50′ E.

BHIROWAL—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north side of the Beyah river, which when the floods are at the highest is here 740 yards over. Lat 31° 29′ N, lon. 75° 5′ E, twenty-four miles S E. from Amritsir.

BHISAGONG—A village in the Singpho country adjacent to Assam, situated about lat. 27° 28′ N., lon. 95° 40′ E.

BHOBANESER (*Bhavaneswara*).—At Bulwanta, in the province of Orissa, on the new road, sixteen miles from the town of Cuttack a lofty massive tower is seen rising among the thickets that skirt the frontiers of Khoorda, six miles within which are the remains of the ruined city of Bhobaneser, consisting of deserted and dilapidated towers and temples sacred to the worship of Mahadeva. From amidst the whole rises the great pagoda of the Ling Raja (Siva), conspicuous for size, loftiness, and the superiority of its architecture.

The natives say there were originally more than 7,000 places of worship consecrated here to Mahadeva, and that it contained no less than a crore of lingams. The vestiges of many places of this description are still visible, mostly mere shapeless masses of brick, buried amongst brushwood and rank vegetation The buildings are constructed of a reddish granite, resembling sandstone, in the form of towers rounded towards the summit, seldom less than sixty, and one rising to even 180 feet in height The stones are held together by iron clamps, but no wood is to be seen throughout. The exterior is adorned with a profusion of sculptured ornaments, and the ruined courts scattered over with an infinite variety of bulls, lingams, and other symbols of Mahadeva, mixed with the forms, energies, and attributes of the whole Hindoo Pantheon.

About the centre the great tower or sanctuary rises to the elevation of 180 feet, crowned by an ornamented crest or head-piece, resembling a turban, which figure forms a distinguishing feature in the temple architecture of Orissa. The local traditions and histories concur in fixing the date of its completion in A D. 657. The city of Bhavaneser was founded by Raja Lalat Indra Kesari, who reigned between A D 617 and 660 A small establishment is still kept up here by the Khoorda Rajas, and the ruins are occasionally visited by Bengalese pilgrims on their way to Juggernauth. Among the curiosities of the neighbourhood is a huge figure of the lingam, forty feet high, consisting of one single shaft of sandstone —(*Stirling, &c*)

BHOJIPOOR—A town in the Oude territories, 102 miles N. from Lucknow, lat 28° 20′ N, lon 80° 51′ E.

BHONSLA.—An old subdivision of the Concan, in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north by the Dewghur river, on the south by the Portuguese territories attached to Goa, and on the west by the sea. Like the rest of the Concan it resembles an inclined plane, with an irregular surface, declining in height from the western ghauts as it approaches the sea. It is traversed by many mountain streams, such as the Dewghur and Atchera, and formerly the resort of the piratical fleets that infested the west coast of India. The principal town is Warree, or Sawuntwarree, the chief of which is usually denominated the Bhonsla. The other towns of note are Malwan, Vingorla, and Raree. It is now comprehended within the British Concan districts.

BHOOJ—The modern capital of Cutch, founded about two centuries ago by Row Bharra; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 69° 52′ E. It stands on the S.W. side of a hill, on which extensive but

ill planned fortifications have been erected, as they afford no protection to the town. Viewed from the north, Bhooj has an imposing appearance from the display of white buildings, mosques, and pagodas, interspersed among plantations of date trees; but a nearer approach detracts from the prior respectability of its appearance. The Row's palace, however, is a castle of good masonry, the cupolas and roofs of which are encrusted with a sort of enamel that gives it a Chinese appearance. To the west of the town, and covering two short faces of the fort, is a large tank, with stairs down to the water, and in the centre an elevated terrace. In 1818 the town contained about 20,000 inhabitants, among whom are artists remarkable for their ingenuity in working gold and silver. In 1819 the hill-fort of Bhooj was taken by escalade by a detachment under Sir William Keir, and on the 16th June of the same year both town and fort were nearly destroyed by an earthquake.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Bhooteas.—See Bhutant.

Bhopaul.—See Bopaul.

Bhopawur.—A ruinous town in the province of Malwa belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the right bank of the Mhye river; lat. 22° 37′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.

Bhorassa.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowty, situated on the left bank of the Cali Sind river. The inhabitants manufacture mill-stones from excellent free-stone found in the neighbourhood.

Bhoreghaut (*the great*). — A ghaut or pass in the province of Aurungabad through the western range of mountains, ascended on the road from Bombay to Poona. Since the expulsion of the Peshwa this pass has been greatly enlarged and improved, and an excellent carriage road, five miles in length, now forms the communication between the maritime district of Callianee and the table-land of the Deccan, exhibiting the most magnificent scenery.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bhoreghaut (*the less*) —A pass through the mountains that stretch across the division of Jooneer in the Aurungabad province, commencing about nineteen miles S E by E. from Poona. The ascent is rather steep and stony, but neither difficult or long, and leads to a region elevated about 600 feet above the more northern tract of table-land, where stands the city of Poonah. In travelling southward, a marked improvement of the temperature is experienced immediately after clearing this pass.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bhowanipoor.—A town, or rather market-place, in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, situated in the division of Ranny Sonkol. At the festival of Nekmundun (a Mahomedan saint) a great meeting is held here, from the 7th to the 17th of April. A military guard and civil officers attend to preserve peace, for the multitude is great, and consists chiefly of rogues, thieves, prostitutes, swindlers, musicians, jugglers, showmen, and religious mendicants, augmented by idlers, pilgrims, and traders from Bootan, Nepaul, Purneah, Benares, Patna, Rungpoor, and Moorshedabad, the aggregate sometimes amounting to 100,000 persons.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bhowanny (*Bhavani*).—A town in the Delhi province, eighty-two miles W. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E. In 1809 it was stormed in open day by a British detachment under Col. Ball, and captured with the loss of 136 killed and wounded, the inhabitants being confident of their strength from having repelled all former attacks by the native powers.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Bhow Begum.—See Fyzabad.

Bhownuggur.—A seaport town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the west side of the Gulf of Cambay, lat. 21° 48′ N., lon. 72° 16′ E. It was

named after the grandfather of the present Rawul, who founded it on the site of a village called Joona Wurwa. These princes had the good sense to encourage trade and extirpate piracy: the town in consequence waxed rich, and is now the chief mart for the export and import trade of Cattywar, Ahmedabad, and Marwar. One curious and not very creditable manufacture has long been established here, which is a mint for the fabrication of base money, where every sort of rupee current on the west side of India is so well counterfeited, that even native bankers have been deceived. In 1812 the Raja was not only suspected of conniving at the practice, but also for sharing in the profits. From 1810 to 1814 thirty-eight Arabian vessels arrived here aggregating 2,716 tons, Surat and Bhownuggur being their chief places of resort. In 1821 the harbour was injured by the bursting of embankments.

In 1807, with the voluntary concurrence of the Raja, the tribute he used to pay to the Guicowar, amounting to 74,500 rupees, was transferred to the British government, but this change did not authorize any interference with the internal concerns of the genuine Bhownuggur territory. In 1800 it was discovered that its chieftain, although tributary, and actually under the protection of the British government, connived at the depredations of the turbulent Catties, and was in consequence fined In 1816 his military establishment amounted to 900 infantry and 1,090 horsemen, a large proportion of whom he subsequently discharged; but kept the remainder in so effective a state, that in 1820, after a long and persevering pursuit, they attacked and nearly destroyed a considerable party of Komaun Catties, whose depredations, however, the Bhownuggur cabinet was strongly suspected of having instigated. This being an extraordinary instance of effectual aid derived from a native ally, Mr Elphinstone, the governor of Bombay, addressed a suitable complimentary letter to the thakoor. His connivance, however, with the plunderers, having been subsequently clearly proved, he and his dewan were fined in the mitigated penalty of 100,000 rupees, for having originally created the insurrection, which his troops took so active a part in suppressing.—(*Public MS. Documents, A. Robertson, Carnac, Walker, &c.*)

Bhugwanpea.—A small insulated district in the province of Candeish, bounded on the west by Nemaur, and on the north and south by the Satpoora and Vindhya ranges of mountains, and on the east by Gundwana. It is nearly bisected by the Nerbudda river. The principal towns are Hindia and Hurdah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bhugwuntgur.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, situated on a steep rocky hill close to the Massoora river, which is about 400 yards wide with a deep muddy bottom. Lat. 16° 8′ N., lon. 73° 38′ E., fifty-seven miles N.W. from Goa.

Bhujee.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna. It contains no fort except that of Kungur, which is possessed by the Cahlore Raja. Bhujee was conquered in 1811 by the Gorkhas, who were expelled in 1814 by Sir David Ochterlony. In 1815 the total revenue was estimated at 6,500 rupees per annum.—(*Lt. Ross, &c.*)

Bhurasoo.—A village in northern Hindostan, one of the remotest T'hats or divisions of Roween. Lat. 31° 17′ N., lon 78° 25′ E, seventy-seven miles N. by W. from Serinagur.

Bhurtpoor (*Bharatapura.*) The capital of an independent native chief in the province of Agra, thirty-one miles W. by N. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 17′ N., lon. 77° 23′ E. The Bhurtpoor territory, including the small pergunnah of Tanua, is superior in extent to that of the Macherry Raja, and reaches from Gopaulghur, in lat. 27° 39′ N. to Biana, and forms the western boundary of

the Agra district. In 1818 the total area was rather less than 5,000 square miles. Bhurtpoor, Deeg, Combhere, Weyre, and Biana are the chief towns. Gopaulghur is a strong fort, and the town of Kurnau is of great extent, with a large brick fort in the centre, but in a ruinous condition; only the eastern quarter of the town being inhabited. Nuggur, Robass, Wheeguish, Roodawah, Nudbharee, Phurser, and others, are of little note. The country from Deeg to Bhurtpoor is so low, that during the heavy rains it may be said to be completely inundated. In 1823 the Bhurtpoor territory was in a most flourishing condition, the villages numerous and well constructed, and the crops waving abundance, yet the peasantry went constantly armed, which did not indicate such consciousness of personal safety as is to be seen within the British districts. The peacock is here held in such veneration, that it is dangerous to kill it. The Bhurtpoor Raja is one of the principal chieftains of the Jauts, which are a tribe of low Sudras, who, presuming on their temporary importance, venture to assume the title of Khetri (the military caste). They must, however, be carefully discriminated from the Jauts or Juts, who are the old Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab.

The tribe of Jauts first attracted notice in Hindostan about A.D. 1700, when having migrated from the banks of the Indus, in the lower part of the province of Mooltan, they were allowed to settle in the avocations of industry in several parts of the Doab, of the Ganges, and Jumna. Their subsequent progress was uncommonly rapid; and during the civil wars carried on by the successors of Aurengzebe, they found means to secure themselves a large portion of country, in which they built forts and accumulated treasure. The title of raja is a Hindoo distinction some of them have assumed, but to which they have no more real right than their ancestors had to the contents of the imperial caravans, which they were in the habit of plundering. During Aurengzebe's last march to the Deccan, Churamun, the Jaut, pillaged the baggage of the army, and with part of the spoil erected the fortress of Bhurtpoor Sooraj Mull, one of his successors, new modelled the government, and was afterwards killed in battle with Nudjiff Khan, A.D. 1763. He was succeeded by his son Jewar Singh, who was secretly murdered in 1768, at which period the Jaut dominions extended from Agra to within a few miles of Delhi on the north, and near to Etaweh on the south. They also possessed a tract south of the Jumna; and, besides places of inferior strength, had three forts, then deemed impregnable. About 1780, Nudjiff Khan subdued great part of the Jaut country, and left the raja little besides Bhurtpoor, and a small district of about seven lacks of rupees per annum.

On the death of Jewar Singh in 1768, his brother Ruttun Singh ascended the throne, and being also assassinated, was succeeded by his brother Kairy Singh, on whose death Runjeet Singh assumed the sovereignty. When Madhaje Sindia first undertook the conquest of Upper Hindostan, he experienced essential assistance from Raja Runjeet Singh, who on this account was treated with great comparative lenity by the Maharattas.

In September 1803 a treaty of perpetual friendship was concluded by General Lake, on the part of the British government, with the Bhurtpoor Raja, and so sincere was the union on the part of the former, that districts yielding a revenue of 754,000 rupees per annum were made over to the latter in full sovereignty. Notwithstanding so regular a compact, ratified in the most solemn manner with all the customary formalities, and in the maintenance of which both the Raja's interest and honour seemed concerned, in 1805 this prince most unaccountably espoused the declining cause of Jeswunt Row Holcar, recently discomfited by Lord Lake, and admitted him with the shattered remains of

his army into the fortress of Bhurtpoor, before which the British army arrived on the 3d of January 1805.

Bhurtpoor is a town of great extent, and every where strongly fortified, being surrounded by a mud-wall of great height and thickness, with a very wide and deep ditch. The fort stands at the eastern extremity, and is of a square figure, one side overlooking the country, the other three within the town. It occupies a site that appears more elevated than the town; its walls are also said to be higher, and its ditch of greater width and depth. The circumference of both town and fort is about eight miles, and their walls, in all their extent, are flanked with bastions at short distances, on which are mounted very numerous artillery. When Lord Lake's army approached Bhurtpoor a large expanse of water at the north-west side of the town suddenly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole had been admitted into the ditch that surrounds the town and fort.

Within these fortifications the whole forces of the Bhurtpoor Raja were concentrated. The infantry of Jeswunt Row had taken a position and entrenched themselves under the walls, and all the inhabitants of the adjacent country, who were in any way capable of aiding the defence, were thrown into the place. The assembly of such a multitude created the most serious obstacles to the operations of the British army. Measures were speedily executed to retard its progress, and the effects of the battering train were almost immediately repaired, which probably constituted the most efficient source of that resistance which was experienced during the siege.

The town and fort were amply provided with all kinds of military stores, Bhurtpoor having long been the mart of Hindostan for these articles, which had also been accumulated by the Raja. The great extent of the place, and the smallness of the besieging army, confined the operations to one point; the besieged had consequently an opportunity of procuring supplies from the neighbouring country, which would have been precluded could the place have been completely invested. In the course of this siege, also, the British engineer officers, however zealous in the performance of their duty, were found, neither in abilities, knowledge, or experience, adequate to the magnitude of the exigence; which deficiency doubtless had considerable effect in impeding the progress of the besieging army. And, finally, due credit must be given to the bravery of its defenders, and to the military conduct of their leaders. But there is reason to believe that, with the exception of Holcar's forces encamped under the walls, and which were attacked and routed with the loss of all their artillery, the garrison and inhabitants sustained but a trifling loss compared with the enormous carnage which destroyed the flower of the British army, amounting to 3,100 killed and wounded, viz.

1st storm	456
2d do.	591
3d do.	894
4th do.	987
	2,928
Casualties	172
Total	3,100

Notwithstanding so obstinate a defence, and the slaughter which thinned the ranks of the besiegers, the Raja, perceiving that their perseverance must ultimately prevail, sent his son to Lord Lake's camp with the keys of the fortress, and agreed to compel Holkar to quit Bhurtpoor. On the 17th April, the siege being thus concluded, a second treaty was arranged, but with stipulations calculated to enforce a stricter performance of its conditions. The territory conferred on him was resumed, he engaged to pay twenty lacks of rupees towards the expenses of the war, and to leave his son as a hostage until events proved that his fidelity could be relied on. From

this date his policy seems to have been to thwart and irritate the British government to the utmost verge of its forbearance, and to concede immediately when a crisis seemed impending. While M. Perron governed Upper Hindostan, he made the petty chiefs instantly obey his most dictatorial mandate; but they have been treated by the British with such delicacy and liberality that their dependent condition has wholly disappeared, and, with a native perversity of disposition, they think it unable to enforce, what it hesitates to command

Raja Runjeet Singh, who so well defended his capital, died early in 1824, and was succeeded by his son Baldeo Singh: who died suddenly on the 28th February, at Goubherdon, having scarcely sat a month on the throne, leaving a son, Bulwunt Singh, then seven years of age, who was recognized by Sir David Ochterlony as the legitimate successor. In March 1825 his mother and uncle, his guardians, were attacked by Durjunt Sal, a cousin of the young Raja's, the uncle murdered, many lives lost, and the boy taken possession of by the usurper. Lord Amherst, then Governor-general, forbore resorting to coercion as long as hopes could be reasonably entertained of accomplishing by means of negociation the restoration to power of the legitimate prince, but every effort having been exhausted, and a powerful army assembled, siege was laid to the place. which, after six weeks of open trenches, was captured by storm on the 18th January 1826, with the loss of sixty-one Europeans and forty-two natives killed, and 283 Europeans and 183 natives wounded; total 569. while the garrison lost about 4,000 men, mostly killed. Durjunt Sal and his family were caught during their flight, and sent prisoners to Allahabad. The principal bastions, curtains, and other important parts of the fortification, were subsequently blown up and demolished, and the fortresses of Biana, Deeg, Weyre, Kumbhere, and Kaina, having surrendered without opposition, were occupied by British garrisons. — (*Lord Lake, the Marquis Wellesley, Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Hunter, Franklin, &c.*)

Bhutant.—A tract of country in Northern Hindostan which formerly composed the Bhote provinces of Tibet, which commence on the north from the table-land beyond the mountains. They comprise different passes into Tibet, and some of the loftiest peaks of the Himalaya, and are now attached to the districts of Gurwal and Kumaon. A great proportion of the surface is above the line of perpetual congelation, and an interval of four months without a fall of snow is a rare occurrence The population, estimated at 10,000, consists almost wholly of Bhooteas, almost perfect Tibetians, yet some are said to be the descendants of Mogul Tartars left by Timour. They were formerly all Buddhists of the Lama sect, but since then many have partially adopted the Hindoo religion, employing both Brahmins and Lamas. They have no distinction of caste, but still tribes and villages will not intermarry. They monopolize the trade in this quarter between Hindostan and Tibet. The name Bhutant is retained to distinguish it from Bootan, the country of the Deb Raja The country of Bhote in this direction may be said to commence at the village of Jelam, lat. 30° 38′ N, lon. 79° 51′ E., as the inhabitants are able to continue in their houses throughout the whole year at the villages below.

After passing Jelam upwards, all access and passage is prevented by the snow from October to May, during which interval the higher Bhootea villages are entirely deserted. On the 27th June 1818 spring had just commenced in this quarter, where the productions of the lower hills are replaced by cypress, hazel, and birch trees; the bushes, consisting principally of gooseberry, currant, a dwarf species of cypress and juniper, with dog-roses red and white. The only grains that ripen are papira (peculiar

to Bhote, and resembling French wheat), cheena (the *panicum miliaceum*) and awa and jawa, two species of barley As the spots adapted for cultivation in Bhutant are few, the villages are necessarily small in size and much dispersed: yet the climate is much warmer than might have been expected from its elevation. At Gamsali, lat. 30° 44′, about the end of June, Fahrenheit thermometer in the shade ranged during the hottest time of the day from 60° to 75°, and at daylight from 45° to 50°. After the middle of August none of the inhabitants are suffered to ascend the tops of the surrounding mountains, or to use fire-arms near the villages, such incidents being known from experience to occasion a fall of snow from above, and a frost below, both tending to injure the ripening crops.

Besides the countries we call Tibet and Bootan, the Bhooteas every where between the Cali and the Teesta occupy the alpine region adjacent to the snowy peaks of Himalaya, on both sides of the mountains, which tract is by the natives of the south termed Bhote, and the inhabitants Bhooteas. According to native accounts the Bhooteas neglect agriculture, chiefly practising commerce, and a life of monkish austerity, occasionally but unwillingly wielding the sword. Their principal support proceeds from the produce of their mines, and of the numerous flocks of sheep, goats, and cattle, the quantity of grain raised being quite inconsiderable. With respect to their complexion, it has been remarked by Dr. Francis Buchanan, that the Bhooteas he saw at Catmandoo (the capital of Nepaul) from the elevated regions of Mustung, Kuti, Lassa, and Digarcheh, were all fully as black as the natives of Canton or Ava.

Prior to the Nepaulese war this tract paid tribute to the Gorkhas, and its inhabitants were kept in a miserable state of slavery and oppression. The genuine Bhooteas here are certainly of Tartar origin, and such is their own opinion, indeed the migration is so recent, that the natives of Niti still enjoy from the Chinese government, as Tartars, certain immunities from duties paid by other traders. In language and personal appearance there is also a striking resemblance, and although they no longer intermarry, yet the Bhooteas do not hesitate to eat and drink with the Tartars. Their religions are nearly the same, except that the former have adopted several Hindoo superstitions, still retaining a great veneration for their lamas. Until conquered by the Gorkhas, bulls and cows were annually sacrificed in great numbers: but since that event, buffaloes and the chowry cattle have been substituted. The Bhooteas, however, by the other hill tribes are still considered cow-killers, and, as such, outcasts of the worst description.—(*Trail, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHUTKOT PEAK.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles N.N.W. from Almora; lat 29° 49′ N., lon. 79° 29′ E., 9,133 feet above the level of the sea.

BHYNTUREE.—A native fortified post in Northern Hindostan, kingdom of Nepaul, four miles east of the Cali river, lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 80° 23′ E., 5,615 feet above the level of the sea.

BHYSOUDA.—A small town in the province of Malwa, near the frontier of Harrowty, which in 1820 contained 2,400 inhabitants

BIANA (*Byana*).—A town in the province of Agra belonging to the *Bhurtpoor Raja*, situated on the Ban Gunga river, fifty miles W.S.W. from the city of Agra, lat. 26° 57′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E. Biana preceded Agra as the capital of the province, Secunder Lodi having kept his court here while Agra was a mere village, and it is frequently mentioned by the Emperor Baber in his memoirs. It was first conquered by the Mahomedans A D. 1197. The town is still considerable, and contains many large stone houses, and the ridge of the hill, at the foot of which it is situated,

is covered with the remains of buildings, among which is a fort containing a high pillar, conspicuous at a great distance. The bazar of Modern Biana is large, and in 1820 shewed signs of reviving commerce and an active population. The fortifications also on the neighbouring hill had then been just renovated, and strengthened with new works of masonry.—(*Abul Fazel, Hunter, Fullarton, &c.*)

BICKEYHAUT.—A town in the province of Bengal situated on the right bank of the Bhagirati or Cossimbazar river, further down named the Hooghly. On the opposite bank there is a building occupied as a college of Byraggies.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BICANERE (*Bicanir, or Bakanair.*)—A Rajpoot principality in the Ajmeer province, of which it occupies the centre, and situated principally between the twenty-seventh and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude. Like all other states in this waste of moving sand, its limits are difficult to settle, vast tracts being claimed and rejected by all parties, as political circumstances happen to support or oppose their pretensions To the north it is bounded by the great Ajmeer desert and the Bhatty country; to the south by the Joudpoor and Jeypoor dominions; on the east it has the British district of Hurriana and the Shekawutty country, and on the west Jesselmere and the great desert, into which it merges. Considering their local peculiarities, and the total absence of streams, rivers, and lakes, it is a curious fact that the Hindoos of Bicanere should particularly object to the eating of fish, as sinful.

The country is rather elevated, but the surface flat, and the soil a light-brown sand, that absorbs the rain as soon as it falls; wells are consequently indispensable, are lined with brick, and from 100 to 200 feet deep. Each family has a cistern for the preservation of rain water. With the exception of a few villages on the eastern frontier, the crops are very precarious, and greatly dependent on the periodical rains. Bejurah and other kinds of Indian pulse are almost the only produce, the inhabitants trusting in a great measure for a supply of provisions to the neighbouring provinces. Horses and bullocks of an inferior breed are nearly the sole exports; the imports are coarse and fine rice, sugar, opium, and indigo. The first articles are usually brought from Lahore by the way of Rajghur and Chooroo. Salt is procured from Sambher; wheat from the Jeypoor country; spices, copper, and coarse cloth, by the road of Jesselmere. The chief stronghold is the city of Bicanere; but Chooroo, Rajghaum, and Bahudra, are reckoned strong places by the natives.

The Bicanere Raja is a Rhatore by caste, and of the same family with the Joudpoor chief, the elder branch having established itself at Joudpoor, and the junior at Bicanere. He is the least important of the five Rajpootana princes; but it does not appear that he ever paid tribute to the Maharattas, for which he was probably indebted to the distance and sterility of his principality. In 1809 his revenue amounted to only five lacks of rupees per annum; but as his troops are paid by assignments of land, he is enabled to maintain 2,000 horse and 8,000 foot, with thirty five pieces of ordnance. His first frontier town towards the Shekawutty country is Chooroo, which may rank as the second in importance. The cultivators are mostly Jauts, some converted to the Mahomedan faith and some not. In the Lord's Prayer, as given in the Bicanere language, twenty-nine words out of thirty-two were identified by the missionaries as radically the same with those in the Hindostany and Bengalese specimens.

In 1808 these miserable territories were invaded by five different armies: when the Bicanere chief, as a measure of defence, filled up all the wells within ten miles of his capital, and trusted for deliverance to the desolation that surrounded him. Next year, in his distress, he earnestly solicited

the favourable mediation of the British government with his enemy the Joudpoor Raja; but he was informed in reply, that although the governor in council entertained a high sense of the friendly attention paid to the British envoy (Mr. Elphinstone) while passing through the Bicanere country, they could not deviate from their system of non-interference in the affairs of other states, which constituted a fundamental maxim of their general policy. Although apparently sufficiently employed in the defence of his own dominions against the aggressions of more powerful neighbours, the reigning chief has made several external conquests; amongst others, Bhatneer, the Bhatty capital, of which in 1810 he still retained possession, his existence as an independent prince was further secured by his admission, in 1818, within the pale of British confederacy and protection; and having never before paid any tribute, he was on this occasion only required to defray the expense of any British troops he might solicit.

In 1818 the army under General Arnold reduced several fortified places in the Bicanere territory, occupied by persons in a state of rebellion against the authority of the Raja, who, according to the stipulations of the treaty, paid all the expenses of the detachment.—(*Public MS. Documents, Elphinstone, Prinsep, George Thomas, Metcalfe, &c.*)

Bicanere.—A fortified town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about 260 miles W. by S. from Delhi, lat. 27° 57′ N., lon. 73° 2′ E. It stands within a tract of more than ordinary desolation, but owing to its contrast with the surrounding ocean of sand, presenting externally an appearance of magnificence that closer inspection does not justify. Within ten yards of the wall the country is as waste as the wildest tract of Arabia; but on the northern side there is something that looks like a woody valley. The most remarkable and pleasing sight here is a well of fine water, immediately under the fort where the Raja resides, 300 feet deep, and from fifteen to twenty in diameter; four buckets, each drawn by a pair of bullocks, are worked at once, and when a bucket is thrown down, the noise made by its striking the water is like the report of a great gun.

Bicanere is surrounded by a fine wall, strengthened with many round towers, and crowned with the usual Indian battlements. It contains some elevated houses and some temples, one of which has a lofty spire, and at one corner there is a high showy citadel. The town is distinguished by the whiteness of its buildings and the absence of trees, which give most Indian cities the appearance of woods rather than inhabited places; most of the dwellings are mere huts, with mud walls painted red. The fort is a confused assemblage of towers and battlements, overtopped by houses crowded together; in extent it is about a quarter of a mile square, encompassed by a wall thirty feet high, and a good dry ditch. By the natives it is reckoned a place of considerable strength, but its chief security is the scarcity of water in the surrounding country. In the Raja's service are usually several Europeans of different nations, who reside within the fort. The native inhabitants wear loose clothes, of white cotton or muslin, like the Hindostanies, but are distinguishable by their Rajpoot features and remarkable turban, rising high on the head like a mitre.—(*Elphinstone, G. Thomas, 11th Reg. &c.*)

Bidjeeghur (*Vijayaghar*).—A ruinous fortress in the province of Allahabad, district of Mirzapoor, fifty miles S. from Benares; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 83° 10′ E. Bidjeeghur was formerly the principal stronghold of the Benares Rajas, and was taken by the British in 1781, during the revolt of Cheet Singh, and has ever since been neglected, partly on account of its insalubrity.—(*Foster, Rennell, &c.*)

Bedouly.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirteen miles N E. from

Paniput; lat. 29° 32′ N., lon. 77° 6′ E.

BIJANAGUR (*Vijayanagara*).—A Hindoo city of great fame and antiquity in the province of Beejapoor, named in the Canarese Annagoondy, and occasionally Alpatna, these names being sometimes applied to the city, and at others only to certain portions; lat. 15° 14′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E., twenty-nine miles N.W. from Bellary. The remains of this city occupies both sides of the Toombuddra; and it is to the division on the south-east of the river that the name of Bijanagur is usually applied, while that on the north-west bank is called Annagoondy.

The spot selected for the erection of this famous capital is a very singular one. It is a plain, enclosed by and encumbered with stupendous masses of granite, which in some places swell up from the surface to the form and magnitude of hills, and in others present detached blocks of various forms, piled over one another in all sorts of fantastical combinations, occasionally surrounding little isolated vallies, and elsewhere obstructing all passage except through the narrow-winding defiles which separate the fragments. The communications from street to street, and in some cases the streets also, follow the mazes of these chasms, and in one quarter the principal thoroughfare is under a naturally covered passage, formed by the rocks; the ancient battlements, turrets, and gateways are still in a high state of preservation; the main streets, paved with immense flags of granite, are intersected at intervals by aqueducts; and tanks and wells are excavated in the rock. Temples, choultries, and many other edifices, public and private, of the purest style of Hindoo architecture and great dimensions, are seen perched on the most conspicuous eminence of the naked rock, or ranged in long lines on the plain. The walls, pillars, arches, and even the flat roofs and beams of all these structures, are composed of the granite, which is so abundant on the spot, cut into such enormous masses, that it is difficult to imagine how a people ignorant of mechanics could have transported them to their present positions. Some blocks are from twelve to fifteen feet broad, and thick in proportion; and though of unequal bulk and various shapes, are universally well cut, fitted to each other with the greatest nicety, and display at this day an exterior lustre surpassing that of most buildings of twenty years' standing. It is owing to this superiority of material, and the cyclopean style of their masonry, that the ruins of Bijanagur so far excel in extent and grandeur those of any other ancient city, purely Hindoo, from Hurdwar to Cape Comorin.

The Toombuddra, where it separates Annagoondy from Bijanagur, is about one-third of a mile broad, with a rapid irregularly winding course among the granite hills, and much interrupted by detached rocks rising above its surface, surmounted by an image of the bull Nundy, an open portico, or choultry, or some other religious edifice. At the principal ferry there is a picturesque group of temples, and a huge figure of Hoonimaun, the gigantic monkey, carved in basso relievo; on the eastern promontory similar sculptures abound among the ruins. Opposite to the upper portion of the Bijanagur section of the town the river contracts greatly, and was formerly traversed by a stone bridge.

Bijanagur Proper is enclosed, partly by natural barriers and partly by strong stone walls, on the south and east, and by the Toombuddra on the north and west, encompassing a circumference of at least eight miles; but a large portion of this area is encumbered by inaccessible acclivities. There is a continued succession of paved streets, now nearly uninhabited, for three miles, from the Toombuddra ferry to Humpa, near the western extremity; and the appearance of the ruins about Camlapoor on the south-west, indicate that they also were once included

within the city boundaries. At Humpa there is a magnificent temple dedicated to Mahadeva, standing in the midst of a vast area, surrounded by the cells for the devotees, and having a pyramidical portico facing the east of ten stories, and about 160 feet in height. This edifice terminates a noble street about ninety feet wide, stretching east and west nearly parallel to the Toombuddra (from which it is separated by rows of venerable trees) to another temple near its opposite extremity, with an image of the bull Nundy, twelve feet high, carved out of the rock. The temple of the destroyer (Mahadeva) is well endowed, and attended by numerous Brahmins, and the street itself is lined by a row of handsome stone buildings, decorated with sculptures, and intended for the accommodation of pilgrims during the annual festival.

Between Humpa and Camlapoor there intervenes a ridge of lofty rugged rocks, traversed by a steep causeway, and studded with pagodas. The most remarkable are the great temple of Krishna, and one of smaller dimensions dedicated to Ganesa, but containing a colossal granite image of that deity, sixteen feet high by ten in breadth. Beyond this is the fort entrance, a kind of inner city, containing the remains of four palaces, all within view of each other, built at different periods, and by different rajas. The temple of Rama is distinguished by its pillars of black hornblende which support the porticoes, and are covered with mythological sculptures of the minutest elegance. There are also some columns of the same material in a building near the river at Annagoondy.

But the most extraordinary of all the religious edifices, in respect to elaborate workmanship, dimensions, and freshness of condition, is the group dedicated to Wittoba (an incarnation of Vishnu) near the centre of the city, which has sustained no injury from time, although ransacked, and in parts dilapidated by Mahomedan rancour. They consist, besides the principal temple, of four subordinate buildings or choultries, and several lesser pagodas, the whole contained in an area of about 400 by 200 feet, environed by cells, and entered through a painted pyramidical portico. The columns are clustered with figures of the singh (lion), supporting the entablature, and, like the ceiling, covered with various sculptures; but the greatest curiosity is a rath, or native chariot, in which the image of the god is exposed on holidays. It is formed, wheels and all, entirely of granite, is complete in all its parts, and delicately finished, but probably was never intended for locomotion.

The site of Annagoondy, on the opposite bank of the Toombuddra, resembles that of Bijanagur The approach to the city on this side is by a defile several miles in length, winding among the rocks, in some spots so narrow as barely to permit the passage of loaded cattle, formerly fortified at certain points, and closed by a gate. There are also the remains of another barrier gateway at a short distance beyond the city walls, and thence a passage under these lofty massive gateways still entire, before the centre of the place is reached. A similar line of fortification appears to have been partially extended between this division of the city and the river, for three other gateways must be passed in descending to the Toombuddra. The extent of Annagoondy from north to south is about a mile and a half, which space, like the site of Bijanagur, comprehends many fine religious edifices, sculptures of the Hindoo pantheon in relievo, and other architectural vestiges; but with the exception of a small village between the second and third gateway, built of stones collected from the ruins, it is wholly uninhabited. Near to this village is a temple of Krishna, at which worship is still performed, and which in 1820 was undergoing a thorough repair, at the expense of the reigning raja, who sometimes resides in a miserable hovel in

its vicinity, his principal habitation being at Camlapoor. In one of the ruins near the Toombuddra a specimen of a painted ceiling after the Indian manner is to be seen, the colours of which are still remarkably vivid.

The building of this metropolis was begun A.D. 1336, and completed in 1343, by Aka Hurryhur and Bucca Hurryhur, two brothers, the first of whom reigned until 1350, and the last until 1378. Their priest and prime minister was the learned Madhava Acharya. It was first named Vidyanagara, but afterwards Vijeyanagara, the city of victory. The Chola (Tanjore), the Chera, and the Pandian (Madura) dynasties were all conquered by Nursingh Raja and Krishna Raja of Bijanagur, in the period between 1490 and 1515. The kingdom was then called Bisnagar and Narsinga in old European maps, and comprehended the two Carnatics above and below the ghauts, when visited by Cæsar Frederick, who described the city as having a circuit of twenty-four miles, and containing within its walls many hills and pagodas.

A state of perpetual war subsisted between the Mahomedan sovereigns of the Deccan and this Hindoo empire, which at last terminated its existence. In A.D. 1564 the four Mahomedan Deccany kings of Ahmednuggur, Bejapoor, Golconda, and Beeder, combined, and totally discomfited Ram Raja, the reigning sovereign of Bijanagur, on the plains of Tellicotta, and afterwards advanced on the capital, which they took, and so completely sacked, that it was deserted by his successor, who retired to Pennaconda. About 1663 the Sree Rung Rayeel, or royal house of Bijanagur, became extinct, at least no more is heard of it subsequent to that era. Of the modern nominal rajas some details will be found under the article Annagoondy. The latter are said for many years to have kept, and still continue to keep, an exact register of all the revolutions in the Deccan and south of India, in the vain hope of being, by some future turn of the wheel, reinstated in their ancient possessions. — (*Fullarton, Wilks, Ferishta, Scott, &c.*)

BIJNEE (*Bijni*).—A principality (named also Khungtaghaut) beyond the limits of Northern Hindostan, and confining on Assam, the possessions of which are situated on both sides of the Brahmaputra, and consist partly of independent territory, and partly of lands within the limits of British jurisdiction. Bijnee or Khungtaghaut is situated to the north of the great river, and Howeraghaut to the south, bordering on the Garrows.

Bijnee is a very extensive, beautiful, and, were it cultivated, would be a most valuable estate. Much of the level country is inundated, but there is also a great extent of land fit for the cultivation of transplanted rice. A considerable number of villages are consequently permanent, and have plantations of betel-nut and sugar-cane; but of the cultivators many are migratory, and on the least dispute withdraw to the conterminous territories of Bootan and Assam. Howeraghaut, the other division to the south of the Brahmaputra, is a still more valuable estate, being but partially flooded, and containing much excellent soil suited for the production of summer rice, wheat, barley, mustard-seed, pulse, betel, sugar-cane, and mulberry trees. It does not appear, however, that any silkworms are reared. The villages are stationary, and much neater than is usual in Bengal; and near the hills, where the streams are copious and perennial, some of the land returns annually two crops of transplanted rice.

After the Assam country declined to its late anarchical condition many natives withdrew to Howeraghaut, and many more, although they held lands in Assam, brought their families to the British side of the river, where they rented as much ground as sufficed for a house and garden. In this asylum the women and chil-

dren were deposited, while the men risked themselves and cattle in the Assamese territory, ready for a retreat in case of annoyance

In consequence of their remote situation and the general wildness of the country, the history of the estates in this quarter was long but imperfectly known, even to the public functionaries at Rungpoor; and so long as the Bijnee Raja paid the customary tribute, no inquiry was made as to the state of the country, or even to ascertain the original nature of its connexion with the Mogul emperor, to whose authority the British government had succeeded The notion so long prevalent, that the fort of Bijnee with a considerable tract of the circumjacent country lies beyond the Bengal boundary, was subsequently found to be quite erroneous, the Bijnee Raja having an evident interest in curtailing the extent of British influence. In the early surveys, Bijnee and Bidyagong, although entirely distinct, were confounded under the name of Bootan Bijnee, and the Bijnee estates were carried as far as the frontiers of Cooch Bahar. In 1785 the collector of Rungpoor was instructed to settle with the Rajas of Bijnee and Bidyagong for a certain payment in money, instead of the customary present of elephants, by which a loss was annually sustained, and 2,000 rupees were ultimately accepted as a compensation. In 1790 a succeeding and over-zealous collector prevailed on the raja to augment his tribute to 3,000 rupees: but the increase was rejected by the British government, which ordered the additional 1,000 rupees to be restored to the raja, who was entitled, if he chose, to resume his payment in elephants

The peculiar circumstances of Bijnee appear to have been first brought to the notice of government about A.D 1791, in which year Mr Douglas, the commissioner in Cooch Bahar, reported that Havindra Narrain, the zemindar of Bijnee, had been assassinated, and that he had directed the Naib of Rangamatty, in conjunction with the late zemindar's dewan, to take temporary charge of the property. Before an answer could arrive, the commissioner was informed by the Deb Raja of Bootan that he had nominated Mahindra Narrain (related to the defunct) to the vacant throne, the friendship between him (the Deb Raja) and the Honourable East-India Company rendering his appointment quite the same as if it had been made at Calcutta. He was soon apprized, however, that so precipitate and informal a proceeding could on no account be sanctioned; but in the mean time Mahindra Narrain having got a party of Bootanners from one of the Deb Raja's governors, entered Bijnee, and there committed a variety of outrages. At this time the only connexion that subsisted between Bootan and Bijnee consisted of a sort of exchange of the productions of the two countries, which the Bootan functionaries were pleased to describe as the payment of a tribute, the advantage being considerably in their favour

The result of the investigation was, that the Bengal government determined that the right of investiture to the zemindarry belonged to them; but as the candidate brought forward by the Deb Raja appeared to have the best founded pretensions, his choice was confirmed, and his protégé nominated to the succession.

The Bijnee chief also holds lands in Assam, but the British government assert the right of investiture to his own hereditary zemindarry. In 1809 the two divisions of Bijnee Proper and Howeraghaut were estimated to contain 32,400 ploughs, each of which ought, on an average, to have paid the raja five rupees per annum, besides customs, duties, forests, fishings, pastures, and all manner of illicit and irregular exactions; yet his poverty was such that he was accustomed *once* in three years to raise some additional money by absolute begging, which however conveys no degrading idea to a Hindoo. He formerly paid his tribute in elephants, but as few survived, and were seldom

of a good size, a value was put on the number, and the amount as above-mentioned taken in money. The Bootan tribute is principally paid in dried fish. One half of his rents are paid in coarse cotton cloth woven by the females of the tenantry, on which the raja suffers great loss. His affairs, as may be supposed, are extremely ill-managed, and his property plundered by needy retainers from the south and the west, who harass the cultivators by unjust exactions and ruin the commerce by their iniquitous monopolies. Being one of the highest chiefs of the Cooch tribe, almost every cultivator under him is called a rajbungsi, but they are divided into two kinds: the Bhakat or worshippers of Krishna, and the Gorami, who eat pork and unutterable food, and openly abandon themselves to strong drink Raja Bolit Narrain reigned in 1809, and was reckoned the seventh from the founder of the family.—(*Sisson, F. Buchanan, Wade, Turner, &c.*)

Bijnee.—The capital of the abovementioned principality, situated twenty-five miles east from Goalpara, in Bengal; lat. 26° 29′ N., lon. 89° 47′ E. The fort or castle of Bijnee is defended by a brick wall, and is 320 cubits long by 160 broad, and in the form of a parallelogram. On the outside is a ditch and strong hedge of the prickly bamboo, and in each face there is a gate, but in 1809 there were not any doors by which the gate might be shut. The area is divided into an outer and inner apartment, in which the raja's females dwell. It is also surrounded by a brick wall, which includes a small brick house erected by a servant from Dacca, but up to the date abovementioned the raja had never entered it, lest it should fall and kill him. There are also a few small brick temples for household gods, and about one hundred thatched huts.

The town of Bijnee, where the raja resides, and from whence he derives his title, is described as a sort of neutral ground. To the English the raja says it belongs to Bootan, and to the Bootanners he represents it as British property: so that although he has a guard of Booteas, and some sepoys whom he probably represents as British, the officers of neither government interfere at Bijnee. Here (in 1809) he was accustomed to harbour lawless persons, especially a certain Mahomedan jemadar, whose men, under the name of Burkindauzes (lightning-throwers), ravaged Assam, and made havoc in that unfortunate and besotted country.

The reigning raja in 1809 had a four-wheeled carriage constructed after the European fashion, and also a superb palanquin, besides some glass furniture. He kept two male elephants for the accommodation of his deity, and four female ones on which he occasionally rode, but which were more frequently employed to catch wild ones for sale His band of music consisted of two drums, one fife, and one hautboy of the native fashion. Besides other servants, he had fifty male and seventy female slaves The detail of his manner of living may be given as conveying an idea of the mode of life and customs of a native prince unadulterated by European intercourse.

The raja was then (1809) thirty years of age, and had been taught to read and write the polite dialect of Bengal. He had only two wives and two concubines. He usually rose about noon, and occupied one hour in cleaning himself and smoking tobacco. At one o'clock his officers were admitted into a hut near the gate in the outer apartments, and received audience seated on the bare ground, while the raja sat on a low stool, and was rubbed with oil, which unction occupied an hour. He then prayed for a short time, after which he went to the interior to eat such food as his aunt, in whose affection he could confide, had prepared for him. This employed another hour, and was succeeded by a short nap, which occupied about the same space of time.

After this the Bijnee potentate

was accustomed to emerge, and make his appearance in a large hut, where any pundit who happened to be at hand detailed to him the news and scandal of the day, or read some poetry to him in the vulgar tongue. At sunset he again prayed, and then the pundits, his officers, or any facetious person disposed to be pleasant, talked to him until midnight. After this he retired to the female apartments to eat and talk with them until daylight, for he had been so alarmed by the fate of his uncle and predecessor, that through the whole night he never ventured to sleep. Once a month he took the air in his carriage, or on an elephant, or horseback, or in a palanquin, but he never ventured beyond the bounds of his estate, nor had he ever been visited by any person of a rank approaching to his own.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BIJORE (*Bajawer*).—A small subdivision of the Sewad province, situated principally between the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Bijore is in length twenty-five coss, and in breadth from five to ten coss. On the east lies Sewad, on the north Kenore and Cashgur, on the south Beckram, and on the west Guznoorgul. The air of this district resembles that of Sewad, excepting that the heat and cold are rather more severely felt here. It has only three roads: one leading to Hindostan called Danishcote, and two that go to Cabul, one of which is named Summej, and the other Guznoorgul. Danishcote is the best road. Adjoining to Bijore, and confined by the mountains of Cabul and Sinde, is a desert measuring in length thirty coss, and in breadth twenty-five coss."

The modern district of Bijore is an undulating plain, about twenty-five miles from east to west, and twelve from north to south, and resembles the plain of Peshawer, which it equals in fertility, the principal produce being wheat. The two chief towns, Bijore (or Bajour), and Mawagye, each contain about 1,000 houses. The contiguous forests are so thick as to exclude the sun and almost the rain. Bijore belongs to the Afghan tribe of Turcolani, but it has also other inhabitants, the upper hills being peopled by Caffries; the lower by Hindikees, and the plain by a mixture of all nations under the general denomination of Roadbaurees. The town of Bijore stands in lat. 34° 47′ N., lon. 71° 14′ E.; fifty-five miles N.N.W. from Peshawer.

A tradition long existed, that this district had at one period been inhabited by a certain tribe who claimed descent from the army of Alexander the Great; but the inquiries of Mr. Elphinstone, in 1809, did not tend to confirm the rumour, although their neighbours the Caffries, in the mountains north of Bijore, present many points of semblance. The reported colony was celebrated by the adjacent Asiatics for their beauty and European complexion, their worshipping of idols, drinking wine out of silver cups and vases, using chairs and tables, and speaking a language unintelligible to their neighbours. The Emperor Baber says in his Memoirs (about A.D. 1520), that as the men of Bijore were rebels to Islam, and followed the usages and customs of the infidels, even the name of Islam being extirpated among them, he put them all to the sword, and made their wives and children prisoners, but he does not mention what other religion or superstition they followed.—(*Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, Baber, &c.*)

BIKKUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-five miles S.S.E. from Gualior, lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

BILLETON.—A rocky sterile island in the eastern seas, situated about the third degree of north latitude, between Sumatra and Borneo. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by forty-five the average breadth. Iron ore, generally a scarce fossil in all tropical countries, is here abundant, and the metal procured

from it is said to be of an excellent quality. Some of it is manufactured on the spot into nails and tools for exportation; and it is from hence that the Malays procure much of their iron and steel. In 1812, after the conquest of Palembang, the new sultan ceded this island to the British, but it does not appear to have ever been taken possession of. The armed cruizers stationed in these seas, and the re-establishment of the Dutch authority in Billeton, in conjunction with the arrangements entered into with the Sultans of Lingen and Rhio, had, prior to 1826, greatly reduced the extent of piracy in this part of the archipelago.—(*Crawfurd, Thorn, &c.*)

Billawul.—A town on the sea-coast of the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-nine miles N.W. from Diu; lat. 20° 53′ N., lon. 70° 34′ E.

Billounjah.—A small district in the province of Gundwana, extending along the south bank of the Sone river, and bounded on the east by the zemindary of Palamow, in Bahar. The principal towns, or rather villages, are Oontarree and Ranka, and the whole tract is comprehended within the pale of British protection.

Bilsa (*Bilvesa*).—A large town in the province of Malwa belonging to Sindia, situated on the east side of the Betwa, near its junction with the river Bess, thirty-two miles N.E. from Bopaul; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and in 1820 contained 5,000 houses. Bilsah was first conquered by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1230, and again in 1292. The adjacent country is celebrated all over India for the excellent quality of the tobacco it produces, which is eagerly bought up and exported. It belongs to Sindia, and in 1817 was rented for 40,000 rupees; in 1821, after the restoration of tranquillity, it yielded two and a half lacks of rupees.—(*Hunter, Malcolm, &c.*)

Bima.—A town on the island of Sumbhawa, situated at the east end, and comprehending under its jurisdiction the straits of Sapy, the whole of Mangeray, and the island of Goonong Api. The Bima language extends over the eastern division of Sumbhawa, and the western portion of the island was denominated Floris by the early Portuguese navigators.

Bimlipatam (*Bhimalapatana*).—A small seaport town in the northern circars, sixteen miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 53′ N., lon. 83° 34′ E. A considerable trade is carried on from hence in native craft, and the traces of a Dutch fort still remain. A few tolerable European houses stand near the beach, and a temple on the declivity of a mountain that bounds the town to the south. In 1819 an old Dutch functionary continued in charge of the factory.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bindrabund (*Vrindavana*).—A large town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Jumna, thirty-five miles N.N.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 34′ N., lon. 77° 34′ E. The name Vrindavana signifies a grove of tulsi trees, and the place is famous for having been the scene of the youthful sports of Krishna, to whom many temples still existing were dedicated. Some of these are remarkable for their style of architecture, and the great cruciform pagoda is certainly one of the most elaborate and massy works of Brahminical superstition Besides these there are several sacred pools, distinguished by the names of Radha, Syama, and Jeyacha, where the pilgrims perform their ablutions and wash away their sins. A flight of steps leading to the river is much revered, as having been the spot where Krishna defeated a serpent of large dimensions; and a cadamba tree, as the place where he used to sit and play on the flute, the marks of which are still perceptible among the branches. Different parts of the woods are pointed out as the haunts of Krishna, Radha, and the milkmaids, and others as the residence of ancient Hindoo saints and sages; but are now, as they probably were formerly, the dens of religious men-

dicants (chobees), existing in filth and idleness.—(*Ward, Turner, Fullarton, &c.*)

Binsur Temple.—A small math or temple in Northern Hindostan, thirteen miles S. by E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 4′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

Bintang.—An island (thus named by Europeans) lying off the south-eastern extremity of Malacca, about the first degree of north latitude, surrounded by innumerable small rocky isles and islets In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by eighteen the average breadth. The chief town is Rhio, formerly a port of considerable trade.

Birbhoom (*Virabhumi, the land of heroes*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated on the north-western extremity, about the twenty-fourth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of Boglipoor, on the south by Burdwan and the Jungle Mahals, to the east it has Rajeshahy, and on the west Boglipoor and the Jungle Mahals. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is named Sircar Madarun, and in 1814 it was estimated to contain 7,000 square miles, a considerable portion of it hilly, jungly, and thinly inhabited.

The most important articles produced in this district are rice, sugar, and silk. Coal has been discovered of so good a quality that it now supplies the Calcutta forges, and is carried to sea as ship stock. Iron ore is also found, not in veins, but in strata mixed with clay, whence it is dug. It is very rich in the metal, but cannot compete in cheapness with European iron, as was proved from an experiment instituted by government in 1814. The cultivation and population of Birbhoom are gradually increasing: but the absence of navigable streams is a great impediment to the extension of its commerce Roads and bridges are consequently more attended to, mostly kept in order by the government convicts. The number of native iron forges in Birbhoom and Boglipoor, together with the supply required for Moorshedabad and the adjacent towns, renders the demand for fuel more considerable than usual in Bengal; but the extent of forest throughout the province is immense, and its power of reproduction rapid. In Birbhoom, besides the coal, there are large forests lying close to the forges, which occasion the greatest consumption.

When first acquired by the British, this was the largest Mahomedan zemindary in the province, and was originally conferred on Asaud Ullah, who was allowed to settle here about the time of Shere Shah, for the political purpose of guarding the frontier of the west against the incursions of the barbarous Hindoo tribes of Jeharcund. A warlike Mahomedan militia were entertained as a standing army, with suitable territorial allotments, under a principal landholder of the same faith. In some respects it corresponded with the ancient military fiefs of Europe, certain lands being exempted from rent, and solely appropriated to the maintenance of the troops. This privilege was resumed by Cossim Ali in 1763, and under existing circumstances is become still more unnecessary. So late as 1814 an arrangement was made with the ghautwalls, or petty hill chiefs, of the western jungles, to secure their own abstinence from plundering, and also their assistance towards the suppression of robberies perpetrated by others. Highway depredations are frequent, chiefly committed on Hindoo pilgrims journeying through the forests to the sanctuary at Baidyanath, where there is a celebrated temple dedicated to Siva, and it is probable that many of these robberies are accompanied by murders, the knowledge of which never reaches the police officers. The head-quarters of the judicial establishment are at Soory, which is the residence of the magistrate. In 1801 the population of Birbhoom was estimated at 700,000, in the proportion of thirty Hindoos to one Mahomedan.—(*J. Grant, Po-*

lice Reports, Colebrooke, Fullarton, D. Campbell, Cowell, &c.)

Bircha.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, principality of Ditteah, thirty-two miles N.N E. from the town of Ditteah; lat. 26° 7′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E.

Birmangydroog.—A hil fort in the territories of the Mysore Raja, situated about ten miles W. by S. from the town of Sera.

Bisano.—A small island in the Eastern seas, twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 2° 5′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E.

Bisramghaut —A pass or road over a range of mountains near Adjyghur, leading from Callinjer to Pannah It is a mile in length, and of very difficult ascent for artillery or wheeled carriages.

Bissolee (*Visavali*) —A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north-west bank of the Ravey, here about 120 yards broad at the lowest, and very rapid, being so near the hills, lat. 32° 5′ N , lon 75° 5′ E., forty-two miles N.N E from Amritsir. From Belaspoor fertile vallies, though not wide, extend to Bissolee, where high hills commence, which extend with little interruption to Cashmere. In 1783 this town was fortified, and commanded the entrance to the hills, but at that date both town and district were tributary to the Jamboe Rajpoots, as they are at present to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore —(*Foster, &c*)

Bissolie (*Visavali*).—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-one miles west from Bareily; lat. 28° 19′ N., lon 78° 46′ E. During the early reigns of the Mogul emperors Bissolie flourished, and its prosperity continued under the Rohillahs, but it is now in comparison waste and desolate. Several of the family of Mahomed Ali, the Rohillah founder, are buried here.

Bissunpoor (*Vishnapura*).—An ancient town in the province of Bengal, seventy-seven miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat 23° 4′ N., lon. 87° 25′ E. This place is situated in a tract of ferruginous soil, which rises here about thirty feet above the alluvial gangetic plains, and continues with little interruption to the margin of the adjacent hills. It is still a considerable town, and much frequented as a mart by the inhabitants of the jungle mahals and Ramghur districts, to interchange their commodities for the productions of the plains. The old fort where the Raja resides has been a work of considerable strength and magnificence, as is proved by the remains of massy stone gateways, pagodas, and other decayed buildings within its ramparts For about eight miles to the east the country is covered with a thick palass jungle. Formerly Bissunpoor was the chief town of a large and ancient zemindary, in 1784 containing 1,256 square miles; but a small portion now remains to the Raja, nearly the whole having been sold or attached for unliquidated arrears.—(*Fullarton, J. Grant, &c.*)

Bitorah —A village in the province and district of Allahabad, situated on the right bank of the Ganges about sixty miles south from Lucknow, where the joint magistrate for the Futtehpoor division of the zillah usually resides.

Bittoor —A town in the province of Allahabad, nine miles N. by W. from Cawnpoor. This place has been selected for the residence of Bajerow, ex-Peshwa of the Maharattas. The British civil station was in 1820 removed from hence to Cawnpore, and the public buildings appropriated for the accommodation of himself and followers, and others erected for the same purpose.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Biswah (*Viswa*).—A town in the Oude territories, forty-three miles north from Lucknow; lat. 27° 28′ N., lon. 80° 6′ E.

Black Pagoda.—See Kanarak.

Blackwood's Harbour.—A new harbour named after Sir H. Blackwood, lately discovered on the coast of Coromandel, situated to the north

of Point Poondy, and sheltered from the eastward by the Armegon shoal. It is about forty-six miles from Madras roads, and bears from the flag-staff at Fort George about N. 50° E. The surf is here so moderate, that for four or five days in the week a ship's yawl may land with safety, and it is not at any time so violent as on the adjacent coasts. During the N. E. monsoon the sea breaks high on the Armegon shoal, and consequently renders the anchorage within comparatively smooth.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Blambangan.—A small division in the island of Java, situated at the eastern extremity, which down to a comparatively late period was subject to the Balinese, and chiefly inhabited by that people. In A D 1588 Thomas Cavendish, the circumnavigator, touched at Blambangan —(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Blelling (*or Boleeling*).—A principal town in the island of Bally, the Raja of which having permitted his troops to attack, in 1814, a British post at Banywangi, in Java (where they were routed), an expedition then proceeding to Celebes under General Nightingale, was ordered to call at Bally and exact satisfaction. The expedition terminated without the necessity of proceeding to hostilities by the submission of the Raja: but a British garrison continued to occupy for some time the town and crattan (or citadel) of Blelling.—(*Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Bo (*or Hod*).—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, lying E.S.E from the southern extremity of Gilolo. They are inhabited, and supplies of cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish may be procured here.

Boad (*Bodha*).—A large fenced village in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Mahanuddy river, which at this place in the month of October is one mile and a half broad; lat. 20° 32′ N, lon. 84° 10′ E., 124 miles west from Cuttack. The face of the country in this neighbourhood is mountainous, interspersed with valleys from four to sixteen miles in circumference. The villages are fenced with bamboos to protect the inhabitants and their cattle from wild beasts, and in the fields the women are seen holding the plough, while the female children drive the oxen. The Boad estate commands one of the principal passes into the Cuttack district, and the best road to Nagpoor and Gurrah Mundlah is through Boad.

This is an extensive zemindary, reaching almost to Goomsur, through one of the wildest tracts of woods (abounding with teak) and mountains in India, scantily inhabited by savage Gonds, who acknowledge subordination to the Raja, but pay no revenue. He had been expelled by the Berar Mahrattas who garrisoned his fort, but he was restored by the British, and his money assessment, on account of the miserable condition of his country, reduced to 2,000 rupees.—(*Roughsedge, 1st Reg, &c.*)

Boadjoos (*or Biajoos*).—See Borneo.

Bobeena.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles S. by W. from Jansi; lat. 25° 15′ N, lon. 78° 24′ E.

Bobilee —A town and zemindary in the northern Circars, thirty-five degrees W.N W. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 25′, lon. 83° 31′ E In 1757 the first in rank of the polygars of this country was Rangaroo of Bobilee. His fort stood about sixty miles N.E. of Vizagapatam, close to the mountains, the dependent zemindary being about twenty square miles. There had long been a deadly hatred between this polygar and Vizeram Rauze, an adjacent polygar, whose person, how much soever he feared his power, Rangaroo held in the utmost contempt, as of low extraction, and of no note. Vizeram Rauze persuaded the French commander M. Bussy to espouse his side of the quarrel; and the latter not foreseeing the terrible event to which he was proceeding, determined to reduce the

whole country, and to expel the polygar and his family.

A polygar, besides his other towns and forts, has always one situated in the most difficult part of his country, which is intended for the last refuge for himself and all his blood. The singular construction of this fort is adequate to all the intentions of defence, among a people unused to cannon, or the means of regular battery. Its outline is a regular square, which rarely exceeds 200 yards; a round tower is raised at each of the angles, and a square projection in the middle of each of the sides. The height of the wall is generally twenty-two feet, but the rampart within only twelve, which is likewise its breadth at the top, although it is much broader at the bottom. The whole is of tempered clay, raised in distinct layers, of which each is left exposed to the sun, until thoroughly hardened before the next is applied. The parapet rises ten feet above the rampart, and is only three feet thick. It is indented five feet down from the top, in interstices six inches wide, which are three feet asunder. A foot above the bottom of these interstices and battlements runs a line of round holes, another two feet lower, and a third two feet from the rampart. These holes are usually formed with pipes of baked clay, and serve for the employment of fire-arms, arrows, and lances. The interstices are for the freer use of these arms, instead of loop-holes, which cannot be inserted or cut in the clay.

The towers of the square projection in the middle have the same parapet as the rest of the wall, and in two of the projections in the opposite sides of the fort are gateways, of which the entrance is not in front, but on one side, from whence it is continued through half the mass, and then turns by a right angle into the place. On any alarm the whole passage is choked up with trees, and the outside surrounded, to some distance, with a strong bed of thick brambles. The rampart and parapet is covered by a shed of strong thatch, supported by posts; the eves of this shed project over the battlement. This shed affords shelter to those on the rampart, and guards it against the sun and rain. An area of 500 yards or more, in every direction round the fort, is preserved clear, of which the circumference joins the high wood, which is kept thick, three or four miles in breadth, around this centre. Few of these forts permit more than one path through the woods. The entrance of the path from without is defended by a wall exactly similar in construction and strength to one of the sides of the fort, having its round towers at the ends, and the square projection in the middle.

From natural sagacity, they never raise this redoubt on the edge of the wood, but at the bottom of a recess cleared on purpose; and on each side of the recess raise a breast-work of earth, or a hedge, from whence to gall the approach. The path admits of only three men a-breast, winds continually, is every where commanded by breast-works in the thicket, and has in its course several redoubts similar to that of the entrance, and, like that, flanked by breast-works on each hand. Such were the defences of Bobilee, which are given at length as a specimen of all polygar forts; against which M. Bussy marched with 750 Europeans, of whom 250 were horse, four field-pieces, and 11,000 peons and sepoys, the army of Vizeram Rauze, who commanded them in person.

The attack commenced at daybreak on the 24th of January 1757, with the field-pieces against the four towers, and by nine o'clock several of the battlements were broken. All the leading parties of the four divisions then advanced at the same time with scaling ladders; but, after much endeavour for an hour, not a man had been able to get on the parapet, and many had fallen wounded. Other parties followed with little success, until all were so fatigued that a cessation was ordered, during which the field-pieces, having beaten down more of the parapet, gave the second

attack greater advantage; but the ardour of the defence increased with the danger. The garrison fought with the indignant ferocity of wild beasts defending their dens and families, and several of them stood as in defiance on the top of the battlements, and endeavoured to grapple with the first ascendants, hoping, with them, to twist the ladders down, and this failing, stabbed with their lances; but being wholly exposed, were easily shot by aim from the rear of the escalade. The assailants admired, for no European had seen such excess of courage in the natives of Hindostan, and continually offered quarter, which was always answered by menace and intention of death. Not a man had gained the rampart at two in the afternoon, and another cessation of attack ensued. On this Rangaroo assembled the principal men, and told them there was no hopes of maintaining the fort, and that it was immediately necessary to perserve their wives and children from the violation of the Europeans, and the still more ignominious authority of Vizeram Rauze.

A number called without distinction were allotted to the work. They proceeded every man with his lance, a torch, and his poinard, to the habitations in the middle of the fort, to which they set fire indiscriminately, plying the flame with straw prepared with pitch or brimstone, and every man stabbed, without remorse, the woman or child, whichsoever attempted to escape the flame and suffocation. The massacre being finished, those who accomplished it returned like men agitated by the furies, to die themselves on the walls

Mr. Law, who commanded one of the divisions, observed, while looking at the conflagration, that the number of defenders was considerably diminished, and advanced again to the attack. After several ladders had failed, a few grenadiers got over the parapet, and maintained their footing in the tower, until they obtained more secure possession. Rangaroo hastening to the defence of the tower, was killed by a musket ball. His fall increased the desperation of his adherents, who crowding to revenge his death, left other parts of the rampart bare. The other divisions of the French troops having advanced, numbers on all sides got over the parapet without opposition; nevertheless none of the defenders quitted the rampart, or would accept quarter, but each advancing against, or struggling with, an adversary, would resign his poinard only with death.

The slaughter of the conflict being over, another much more dreadful presented itself in the area below. The transport of victory lost all its joy; all gazed on each other with silent astonishment and remorse, and the fiercest could not refuse a tear to the destruction spread before them. Four of the soldiers of Rangaroo, on seeing him fall, concealed themselves in an unfrequented part of the fort until night was far advanced; when they dropped down from the walls, and speaking the same language, passed unsuspected through the quarters of Vizeram Rauze. They concealed themselves in the thicket, and the third night after, two of them crawled into the tent of Vizeram Rauze, and stabbed him in thirty-two places, and were immediately cut to pieces. Had they failed, the other two remaining in the jungle were bound by the same oath to perform the deed, or perish in the attempt.—(*Orme, &c.*)

Bodur.—A village of considerable extent in the province of Candeish, about forty miles travelling distance S.S.W. from Boorhanpoor. It is of considerable extent, but in 1819 was in a very decayed condition.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bodytunrayadroog.—A stupendous fortified mountain in the Barramahal province, situated about six miles west from Cavrypatam.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Boggah.—A town in the province of Bahar, situated on the east side of the Gunduck river, about 120

miles N.N.W. from Patna; lat. 27° 4′ N., lon. 84° 13′ E. A great tract of country to the north of this place is still covered with primeval forests, from which excellent timber for ship building is procured, and floated down the Gunduck and Ganges to Calcutta.

BOGARIAH.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Boglipoor, 130 miles N W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 53′ N., lon. 86° 52′ E.

BOGHELA *(or Baghelcund)* —A district in the province of Gundwana, but during the reign of Aurengzebe annexed by edict to the province of Allahabad, although it never was actually subdued by his forces. The produce of the country is wheat, barley, and different kinds of peas, and the inhabitants possess large flocks of cattle and sheep. There is, however, but little cultivation, the natives scarcely raising grain enough for their own subsistence. A portion of this territory is tributary to the British government, and the whole is under its protection. The principal towns are Bandoogur and Muckondabad.

BOGLIPOOR *(Bhagelpoor)* —A district in the province of Bahar, where it is situated between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude, occupying the south-eastern corner of that province, together with a small section from Bengal. On the north it is bounded by the districts of Tirhoot and Purneah; on the south by Ramghur and Birbhoom; to the east it has Purneah and Moorshedabad; and to the west Bahar and Ramghur. Its greatest length, from the boundaries of Birbhoom on the Dwaraca, to that of Tirhoot on the Tilaw, is about 133 miles in a N.N W. and S S.E. direction, and its greatest breadth, crossing the above line at right angles, is about eighty miles. By tracing the boundaries on Major Rennel's map, Dr. F. Buchanan estimated its contents at about 8,225 square miles.

In 1784 this district, then denominated Monghir, contained in all its dimensions 8,270 square miles, of which only 2,817 were in the Boglipoor division, on both sides of the Ganges; and the whole territorial outline still continues very unsatisfactory, except where final decisions of the courts of justice have determined the disputed boundaries of the different zemindaries. The modern capital is situated towards one of its extremities, and the whole section which is beyond the capital towards the north is separated from it by the Ganges, which is attended with much inconvenience and some danger.

The hills of Boglipoor, in a few parts, compose regular chains of considerable length, in most parts there being passages, at very short intervals, through which a traveller might penetrate without any great ascent; but in the most hilly parts these apertures have been allowed by the natives to be choked up with trees to protect their strongholds in former times. In the great cluster near Rajamahal, the hills, notwithstanding the ruggedness of the soil, are tolerably well occupied. In other clusters the hills are entirely waste. Many parts of the western cluster would admit of cultivation, and some have been tilled by the mountaineers; but the encouragement of the latter is very doubtful policy, and the inhabitants of the plain will on no account cultivate the hills, lest the purity of their birth should be suspected. The whole of these clusters, and even the hills of Rajamahal, compose, in the opinion of the natives, a part of the Vindhyan mountains. Besides the hilly tracts, there is a considerable extent of swelling ground divided into two portions, that exempted from the influence of the Ganges, and that liable to be affected by its floods

The streams that flow into the Ganges from the south side, differ greatly from those to the north of that river. Although the channels of some of them are of great width, none of them in this district are at

any time navigable, except in the eastern corner, where, during the floods, the water of the Ganges filling the lower part of their beds, renders them penetrable for small boats. Even the largest of them, having channels from 200 to 400 yards broad, are in general fordable throughout the rainy season, at which period, however, several of them are deep enough to assist in floating down bamboos and timber

In the dry season, it is chiefly near their sources that these rivers contain any visible stream, and then each of the small branches appears to contain a greater quantity of water, than the vast channel worn by the united force of these torrents, when swollen by the periodical rains In spring the widest channels appear perfectly dry sand, but by digging a foot or two deep, good water may at all times be procured; and this subterraneous water has in some cases a sort of current, as canals dug across the channel collect a small stream. Above Monghir the Ganges forms the boundary between Boglipoor and Tirhoot. The principal rivers south of the Ganges, are the Keyul, the Maura, the Ulayi, the Nagini (female serpent), the Augjana, which last river having been impregnated by Pavana (Eolus) the god of the winds, produced Hunimaun (Pan), the prince of monkies (Satyri), and the prime minister and companion of the great Rama (Bacchus). The others are the Nacti, the Baghdar (tiger-catcher), the Ghorghat, the Mohané, the Baruya, the Bilasi, the Dobee, and the Mooteejharna, or pearl stream, which falls down a precipice four miles south from Sicrygully.

The pieces of stagnant water may be divided into jeels, that contain water throughout the year, and the chaongre, which dry up during the cold season. Some of the jeels are evidently the old channels of large rivers, which at both ends have lost all communication with the stream, but are so filled with water during the periodical rains, that even in spring they do not become dry. The principal jeels, however, are low lands, which collect a great quantity of water from floods and torrents, and never become dry. The most conspicuous of these is Domjala, south from Rajamahal, which in the rainy season is seven and a half miles long by three and a half broad, and in the dry season four miles by one and a half.

Certain places of the fourth, or northern intermediate division, are found covered with carbonate of soda, called by the natives kurwa matti, and collected occasionally by the washermen of the vicinity. The most remarkable spot is in Hebipoor, about ten miles west of Pointy, on the edge of the plain inundated by the Ganges, and extends about fifty yards in one direction, by thirty in the other During the flood, this place is completely inundated by the Ganges for three or four days, but in the month of October the saline matter begins to effloresce on the surface, which is covered with short grass. The washermen scrape the surface, and beat the saline matter from among the roots, which operation may be repeated, but in the rainy season, even when the spot is not covered with water, no saline matter is procurable. By digging to a very small depth clear water is obtained, notwithstanding the saline nature of the surface.

South winds are very uncommon in Boglipoor, east and west winds being most prevalent for a great portion of the year. The former begin about the middle of June, and the latter about the middle of February, so that the east winds last double the time of those from the west, but they blow with less violence, many remarkable deviations, however, take place. The winters are less cold than in Purneah; and the heats of spring, when the winds are westerly, very severe, these winds being hot and parchingly dry, and the hills are no where of a sufficient height to reduce the temperature of the atmosphere.

In this district there is a great variety of surface, but, on the whole,

the portions of it fit for the plough appear rich, and capable of being rendered productive. A considerable extent is occupied by mere rock, totally incapable of cultivation; and a still greater space is covered with fragments of rock of various sizes. On the hills these masses are so large and numerous, that, could the plough be used, on account of the declivity, the nature of the ground would render its agency impracticable. It has been estimated that in woods, thickets of bushes, and deserted villages, which have become totally wild, there are 1,731 square miles of land sufficiently level for the plough, and that there are 1,146 square miles of hills that are covered with woods, including the ground covered with tamarisks; therefore there are in all, for forests and thickets, almost 3,100 square miles; by far the greater part of which is kept, owing to various causes in a very stunted condition. The teak tree has been planted near Boglipoor by some gentlemen, but it has not thriven. In many parts of the southern central division iron ore has been found, but generally in such small masses, that it would not answer for European manufacture. The most noted hot spring is at Seetacoond, near the town of Monghir, and there is another at Bhurka, six miles south from Seetacoond. The finest hot spring is at Bheembund, about seventeen miles south from Bhurka, in which, on the 21st March 1810, the thermometer stood at 144 Fahrenheit; but there are many others of various temperatures.

The rent-free lands in this district are very considerable, and abstract greatly from the revenue, as it is usually the best soil, and situated in the most populous parts of the country. Another burthen has tended to reduce the revenue of this large territory to an insignificant sum, which is the assignment of lands to invalid soldiers as part of their subsistence, and a reward for their services. It has, however, been found, after an enormous expenditure, that the expectation of rendering this a comfortable provision for the veteran was fallacious, and the plan has been most judiciously abandoned. For the future, the invalids will be rewarded with money, which is much better suited to their habits and infirmities, less expensive, and more easily regulated. The whole land purchased by government on account of invalids, amounts to 234,000 Calcutta begas, which may be converted into three zemindaries. The existing zemindars, notwithstanding the indulgence that has been shewn them in the revenue assessment, in 1810, had not the least confidence in the perpetual settlement made in 1794, and had recourse to every stratagem to conceal their profits, which, where any pains had been taken to cultivate the land, was probably enormous. In 1814 the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to only 3,85,916 rupees, and the abkarry, or tax on spirituous liquors, to 44,569 rupees.

The most destructive of the wild quadrupeds, or rather of the wild four-handed animals, is the Hunimaun (a species of baboon), an animal held so sacred by the Hindoos, that it is reckoned almost as great a sin to kill a cow as one of this genus; such an action is reckoned extremely unlucky, and the same evil fortune attends its bones, which, if buried under a house, render its owner and inhabitants unfortunate. The discovery of such bones, and the ascertaining that no such are concealed where the erection of a house is contemplated, forms one of the arts of the Jyotish, or astronomical philosophers of India. It is probably owing to this apprehension of ill luck that no native will acknowledge his having seen a dead hunimaun: for it can scarcely be supposed that the animals conceal their dead, as many of the natives believe. The short-tailed monkey (ratuya) is also common: but being less sacred, is not permitted to take such liberties with the crop as his long-tailed brother, the hunimaun, is indulged in; his bones, however, are equally unlucky, and persons who have long frequented the woods, will

no more allow that they have seen a dead ratuya than a dead hunimaun.

The black bear is found in the woods, and does little harm, although they occasionally kill a man; but they rarely attack cattle. Another species is called by the natives the hard bear (because it may be beaten very much without being killed). These animals live in pairs or families, and subsist on frogs, white ants, and other insects, which they dig up; but they have never been detected digging up graves, or eating dead carcases, as is reported by the natives.

The drains on population in this district are not great; yet after so long a peace, and with so much unoccupied territory, the increase of inhabitants is not so great as might have been expected. In 1810 the total number of Mahomedans within the limits of the jurisdiction were estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 460,000, the Hindoos at 1,559,900, making a total for the whole district of 2,019,900 persons The Monghir and Suijegurry pergunnahs are overflowing with inhabitants, yet the surplus cannot be persuaded to settle in the adjacent wastes of Mallepoor. The following are the principal towns, besides Rajamahal, which contains 25,000 inhabitants.

	Houses.
Boglipoor	5,000
Champanagur	1,500
Nathnagur	900
Serasin	500
Surjegurry...........	500
Arjungunge	500
Caligunge	600
Atapoor..............	300
Colgong........	400

Besides Monghir and Oudanulla there are the remains of a considerable number of brick and mud fortresses, some of which, belonging to the Cunsickpoor and Ghiddore families, were destroyed by Capt. Brooke, who was sent to reduce the chiefs to subordination during the government of Mr. Hastings. The best-looking modern edifices are the indigo factories. Real slaves of the male sex are here called nufur, and their women laundies; they may be sold in whatever manner the master chooses; but they are not often brought to market, and are all either of the Dhanak or Rawani castes. The slaves here are in general industrious, seldom run away, and are rarely beaten. Prostitutes are few in number, and mostly of the Mahomedan religion. The general character of the inhabitants of the district is far superior to that of the south-eastern natives of Bengal; and one magistrate, in his report to government, declares that, in comparison with the people of Backergunge, they may be termed saints.

Boglipoor is a remarkable thoroughfare for travellers, both by land and water, who expend a great deal of money in the purchase of necessaries, such as rice, pulse, salt, oil, seasoning, fire-wood, tobacco, and betel. Upon an average, it may be estimated that one hundred boats stop daily at Rajamahal, besides those at Pointy, Colgong, Sultangunge, Surjegurry, Boglipoor, and Monghir, while by land multitudes of pilgrims, troops, and European travellers are continually passing. The East-India Company's dealings, however, in this district are inconsiderable, consisting of a little silk, Boglipoor cloth, and saltpetre.

A substance which naturalists include among the clays, but called khari by the natives, is very generally diffused through the hills, when perfect, it is a matter resembling chalk, but it is not calcareous: women in many parts, eat it when breeding, as in Bengal they eat baked clay; and some of it, for this purpose, is exported to Moorshedabad. Boys, when taught to write, rub it with water into a white liquid, with which they form letters on a black board; and native painters and gilders cover with this liquid the wooden work on which they are about to operate.

The mountaineers within the Boglipoor jurisdiction are supposed to occupy a space of about 1,600 square miles, and are exempted from all taxes, and the ordinary course of the law. An enormous establishment of

nearly 2,500 men is retained to check this handful of barbarians, who are besides bribed, by annual pensions, to abstain from the commission of outrages, such as robbery and murder. The rajas or chiefs, who receive pensions of ten rupees per month from government, and some of the naibs or deputies, are of the rank of Singhs; the remainder of the naibs, and all the majhis, who are pensioned at the rate of two rupees per month, are of the rank of Majhi. The land which appears to be the property of the cultivators is tilled for two years, and then abandoned for five or six. In the low lands that are ploughed, they raise the same articles as on the hills, with the addition of rapeseed and sesamum, they collect wild yams, and, besides cows, for milk and labour, they rear swine, goats, fowls, and pigeons, for eating Many still retain a superstitious worship of their own; but a great number of the wealthiest have fallen under the spiritual dominion of a low caste of Brahmins, who have instructed them to worship Durga, and say prayers before a bheel tree Both sexes are much addicted to intoxication, and the amount of the government pensions is generally spent in liquor at Boglipoor, the chiefs returning to the hills as bare of money as they came. The exports of the mountaineers consist of grain, indurated clay, timber, firewood, charcoal, wax, and cotton; their imports are cloths, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal wares, rice, fish, cattle, oil, spices, and salt.

From the time of the Mahomedan invasion until the British obtained possession, the greater part of this district appears to have been in a constant state of anarchy. Some of the original tribes seem never to have been subdued by the Hindoo followers of the Brahmins, and it is only lately that many have put themselves under the guidance of the sacred order; even under the sway of Sultan Shuja, when the Mogul empire still flourished in full vigour, and when that prince actually resided in the district, some portions of the plains were subject to petty chiefs, who contemned his authority, and incessantly agitated the country by their incursions and refractory habits. Mogul officers of rank commonly resided at Rajamahal, Boglipoor, and Monghir, and the first still continues a favourite place of residence with the Mahomedans. Cossim Ali, after his quarrel with the English, dwelt for some time at Monghir, and intended to secure his independence by a line of fortifications erected at Oudanulla. The forcing of these by Major Adams, in 1763, dissipated this vision; but the turbulence of the chiefs of the interior increased, and Captains Brooke and Brown were for several years employed in a miserable warfare with these tribes; but the forces employed were never of such strength as to bring the matter to a conclusion. At length Capt. Brown, of course with the assent of government, by enormous concessions, induced the discontented to become quiet, and his concessions were confirmed by Mr. Cleveland, the civil functionary who succeeded him in authority over the wilder parts of the district. The result was a ruinous settlement and establishment, which still forms part of the Boglipoor economy, and which in the opinion of competent judges (Dr. Francis Buchanan and Mr. Sisson) has produced but little ultimate benefit, those hills in which there is no establishment of the kind (ghautwallas) having continued as tranquil as those into which that establishment was introduced. In 1814 the corporate establishment of the Boglipoor hills consisted of thirteen sirdars or chiefs, thirty naibs or deputies, and 400 manjhis. The pension of a sirdar is ten rupees; of a naib, three: and of a manjhi, two rupees per month. Although the great extent and physical composition of this district necessarily tend to weaken the control of the magistrate, yet in 1815 few crimes of magnitude occurred, the most noted being a murder perpetrated among the hills, on a woman

by her husband; who confessed the crime, and attempted to justify it on the plea that she was a bad house-wife, and neglected her domestic duties. The Boglipoor district, although not so populous as some others, is of such extent that it is difficult for the magistrate to exercise an efficient control, some of the tannahs, or police stations, being 100 miles distant from head-quarters.—(*F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Shakespear, Tennant, &c.*)

Boglipoor.—The modern capital of the above district, situated in lat. 25° 13′ N., lon 86° 58′ E, 110 miles N.W. from Moorshedabad. This town has a mean appearance, although placed in a beautiful situation. The European houses and Mahomedan mosques are ornamental; but the town consists of scattered bazars wretchedly built, and, owing to the declivities, inconveniently placed. In 1810, the total number of houses was estimated at 5,000, inhabited by about 30,000 persons, a majority Mahomedans, who have still a college here, but in a state of great decay There is also a small Roman Catholic church here, and about fifty Christians of that church, half of them the descendants of Portuguese, the rest native converts, who in other respects retain their own dress and manners. In 1810 the priest was a native of Milan, sent by the Societas de Propagande Fide, who had also charge of the Purnea flock of Papists. There are two very singular round towers (the Padoka) about a mile N.W. from the town, supposed to be of Jain origin. The Raja of Jeypoor, in whose dominions the Jain sect abounds, considers them so holy, that he has erected a building to shelter such of his subjects as visit them. Near Goganullah, one stage from hence, is a monument resembling a pagoda, erected to the memory of Mr Cleveland by the officers and zemindars of the jungleterry of Boglipoor, as a mark of gratitude for his mild and conciliatory conduct.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Bogpoor.—A small town in the province of Delhi, situated between two branches of the Ganges, twelve miles south from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 48′ N., lon. 78° 9′ E.

Bogwangola (*Bhagavan Gola.*)—A large inland town in the province of Boglipoor, eight miles N.E. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 21′ N., lon. 88° 29′ E. This is a very busy emporium for the inland navigation, having sufficient water at all seasons; and from hence the capital of the district is chiefly supplied with grain. The town, which is entirely built of bamboos, mats, and thatch, has been removed more than once on account of the encroachments of the Ganges, and exhibits more the appearance of a temporary fair or encampment, than of a solid commercial mart carrying on a most extensive traffic.—(*Colonel Colebrooke, &c.*)

Bokinagur.—A small town in the Bengal province, district of Mymunsingh, seventy-one miles N. by E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 43′ N., lon. 90° 40′ E.

BOMBAY,

A small island, formerly comprehended in the Mogul province of Aurungabad, but now the seat of the principal British settlement on the west coast of India; lat. 18° 56′ N., lon. 72° 57′ E. This island is formed by two unequal ranges of whinstone rocks, running nearly parallel to and at the distance of about three miles from each other. The western range of hills is little more than five miles long; the eastern, exclusive of Colabba, may exceed eight in length. At their northern and southern extremities they are united by two belts of sand, now forming a kind of stone, rising but a few feet above the level of the sea. These natural boundaries were formerly breached in several places, where they admitted the sea, and, according to Fryer's account of Bombay in A.D. 1681, about 40,000 acres of good land were then overflowed. It appears also that the Goper river, which rises among the hills

of Salsette, and disembogues itself into the channel between that island and Bombay, when swollen by floods, used to enter the breaches at the northern extremity, and after traversing the whole extent of the latter, discharge itself into the ocean. In fact, Bombay originally was nothing but a group of small islands, with numerous back waters, producing rank vegetation, at one time dry, and at another overflowed by the sea. So unwholesome in consequence was the vegetation reckoned, that the older travellers agreed in allotting not more than three years for the average duration of life at this presidency.

The fort of Bombay stands on the south-eastern extremity of the island, on a narrow neck of land, formed by Back Bay on the western side, and by the harbour on the eastern. The Worlee sluices are at the north end of the island, a distance of nearly six miles from the fort. Formerly a cocoa-nut wood not only covered the esplanade, but the fort also, down to the channel between Bombay and Colabba. At that remote period of time Mahim was the principal town on the island, and the few houses of the present town then in existence, were interspersed among the cocoa-nut trees, with the exception of those built on Dungaree Hill, adjoining the harbour, which appears to have been then occupied by fishermen. When the fortifications were erected, but very little more land was cleared of the cocoa-nut trees beyond what was absolutely indispensable, leaving the space within the body of the fort, and without its walls, up to the very glacis, a cocoa-nut grove. From time to time, and by various means, the esplanade was gradually cleared of trees to within 600 yards distance of the fort: but cadjan huts were still tolerated until the close of 1802, when they were also removed. In the following year the great fire happened within the fort, and the esplanade was extended to 800 yards.

By this time the more wealthy inhabitants had built houses in a detached irregular manner, throughout the cocoa-nut woods contiguous to the esplanade; and the Dungaree was also built on to the extent of two miles and upwards from the fort; the little vacant ground remaining had in consequence risen to an enormous price. In this state of things the sufferers by the fire, and the indigent from the esplanade, had no alternative but to resort to the Honourable Company's salt batty ground, scarcely recovered from the sea; neither had government any ground to give in exchange for the valuable land taken when extending the esplanade. All these causes combined, serve to account for what is called the new town of Bombay being built in such a low, muddy, unwholesome tract of land, which during the wet monsoon has the appearance of a shallow lake, many of the houses being then separated from each other by water, so that the inhabitants suffer from the inundation and its effects during seven or eight months of the year. At all seasons the ground floor of many of its houses are on a level with high-water mark, some below, and but few actually above it at full spring tides. Much also of the rain-water that falls on the old town and the esplanade, passes through the new town and thence across the breach-hollow to the sluices at Worlee.

Under these circumstances, the surface of the island is so circumscribed, rocky, and uneven (except where a considerable part is overflowed by the sea), that it does not produce a sufficiency of grain in the year to supply its population for one week; yet each spot that will admit of tillage is brought under cultivation of some sort, or planted with cocoa-nut trees. The vellard that communicates between Beach Candy, and Lovegrove, has prevented the ocean from making a breach through the centre. This substantial work, with smaller ones of the same construction, have preserved the low lands of the island from being inundated by the spring tides, which, but for them, would have destroyed all but the barren hills. Although the sea be now

excluded, the rain water still collects in the lower parts of the island, where the surface is said to be twelve feet under high water mark, and during the rains forms an unwholesome swamp. In 1805 Mr. Duncan completed a vellard, or causeway, across the narrow arm of the sea that separated Bombay from the contiguous island of Salsette: an operation of infinite utility to the farmers and gardeners who supply the markets, but which is said to have had a prejudicial effect on the harbour.

The fortifications of Bombay have been improved, but are considered too extensive, and would require a numerous garrison. Towards the sea they are extremely strong, but on the land side do not offer the same resistance; and to an enemy landed, and capable of making regular approaches, it must surrender. The town within the walls was built by the Portuguese, and even the houses that have been since built are of a similar construction, cased in wood, with wooden pillars supporting wooden verandas, shut up with venetian blinds, the roofs sloped and covered with tiles; the consequence of which is, that Bombay bears no external resemblance to the other presidencies. The floors are planked with wood.

There are three government residencies at Bombay. The one within the walls of the fort, although large and convenient, is little used except for holding councils, public courts, and despatching business, of a dismal aspect, looking like a stadthouse in a German free city. At Malabar point, eight miles from the town, is a cottage in a beautiful situation, on a rocky, woody promontory, and actually washed by the sea spray; here the governor resides during the hot weather. The third and principal is Pareil, about six miles from Bombay, at a short distance from the eastern shore of the island. The interior of the house is very handsome, having a fine staircase, and two noble rooms, one over the other, about eighty feet long, and very handsomely furnished. The lower of these, used as a dining-room, is said to have been an old desecrated church belonging to a Jesuits' college, which had fallen into the hands of a Parsee, from whom it was purchased by the government about sixty years ago.

The northern portion of the fort is inhabited by Parsee families, who are not remarkably cleanly in their domestic concerns, nor in the streets where they dwell. The view from the fort is extremely beautiful towards the bay, which is here and there broken by islands, many covered with trees, while the lofty and curiously shaped hills of the table-land on the continent form a striking background. The sea is on three sides of the fort, and on the fourth is the esplanade, at the back of which is the black town amidst cocoa-nut trees. Substantial buildings now extend to very nearly three miles from the fort.

Bombay appears for many years to have been left to itself, and individuals were permitted to occupy what land they pleased, nor was there any system or regulation established for the security of the public revenue. In A.D. 1707 the greater part of the present limits of the fort had become private property; but, by purchases and exchanges between that date and 1759, it became again the property of the Company, yet was subsequently transferred to private persons. It is certainly an extraordinary fact that the principal, if not the whole of the landed property which the Company now possesses within the walls of Bombay, has been recently acquired by purchase, having, within the memory of many persons still alive, bought it of individuals, who were always considered to be merely the Company's tenants at will. The property thus acquired to the Company by purchase and exchanges cost, since 1760, altogether about 7,37,927 rupees.

The buildings within the walls of the fort, including the barracks, arsenal, and docks, may be valued at one crore five lacks of rupees; the

rent of houses within the fort in 1813 amounted to 5,27,360 rupees, including the Company's property. The great price given for ground within the fort, which is daily increasing, the buildings carried on in every part of the European quarter, the commodious and costly family dwellings constructed by many of the natives, and the immense shops and warehouses belonging both to natives and Europeans, furnish the strongest evidence of the high price of ground within the fortress of Bombay, and that it might afford to pay 100 guineas per acre for the support of the police, which, upon 259,244 square yards, would yield 22,036 rupees annually.

Bombay is literally a barren rock, and presents no encouragement to agricultural speculations; but its commercial and maritime advantages are great. It is the only principal settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale; the very highest spring tides reach to seventeen feet, but the usual height is fourteen feet. The docks are the Company's property, and the king's ships pay a high monthly rent for repairs. They are entirely occupied by Parsees, who possess the absolute monopoly in all departments; the person who contracts for the timber being a Parsee, and the inspector on delivery of the same sect. Since 1810, when the Minden seventy-four was launched, many of the best ships of the line and frigates in the British navy have been constructed entirely by Parsees, without the least assistance, and mostly by the Jumsetjee family. The teak forests from whence these yards are supplied lie along the western side of the western ghaut mountains, and other contiguous hills on the north and east of Bassein; the numerous rivers that descend from them affording water-carriage for the timber. The ships built at Bombay are reckoned one-third more durable than any other India-built ships.

The coasting trade of the west of India is very extensive, and it was principally with a view to its protection that such strenuous exertions were made for the suppression of piracy. Taking Bombay as the emporium, it may be divided into northern and southern. The number of vessels of various denominations, from ten to 175 tons, registered in 1820 as being employed in the northern trade, amounted to 730, the tonnage to 39,978. These vessels navigate coastwise from Cape Comorin to the Gulf of Cutch, and sometimes cross the sea to Muscat and the Arabian Gulf. During the eight fair months, that is from October to May, the largest sized vessels perform five or six trips to Damaun, Surat, Cambay, Broach, Jumbosier, and Cutch, bringing from these ports, where they sometimes winter, and where many of their owners reside, cotton, ghee, oil, pulse, wheat, cotton cloths, timber, fire-wood, putchok, mowah, &c., and return to the northern ports laden with the produce of Europe, Bengal, and China. The capital employed in the northern trade, even in the minor articles of commerce, is immense, certainly to the amount of 150 lacks of rupees, and including cotton to double that amount.

Besides these there is a number of smaller boats, from two to thirty-seven tons, that trade in firewood, hay, &c.; their total burthen amounting to 6,580 tons. These are exclusive of a still smaller description of boats, that make occasional trips to Bassein northward, and to Choul southward. The southern staples may be confined to timber, pepper, cocoa-nuts, and coir from Malabar, and besides these, from Canara rice and some cotton; from the Southern Concan, hemp, pulse, fire-wood, and minor articles. Cotton is the grand export to distant countries from Bombay, but the quantity fluctuates remarkably. In 1818 its export from hence to all parts of the world amounted to 208,900 bales; in 1819 to 105,340 bales; and in 1820 to only 20,171 bales. 1,500 pounds of cotton are

here screwed into fifty feet, or one ton. For the European market Bombay is an excellent market to procure gums and drugs of all sorts, Mocha coffee, barilla, cornelians, agates, and Surat cotton goods. The external commerce of Bombay in 1815-16, exclusive of the Company's, amounted to, total imports 3,06,02,230 rupees, total exports 2,07,24,749 rupees; since which it has probably increased at least one-fourth. With the luxuries or conveniences of European production the shops were very indifferently supplied, even so late as 1820, at which date very few European tradesmen were settled at Bombay.

In 1814 the Company's marine at Bombay consisted of eighteen armed cruizers, besides armed boats, advice boats, and other craft; but since then great additions and improvements have taken place. The maintenance of this force was originally rendered necessary by the swarms of pirates that infested the western coasts of India from the shores of the Persian Gulf to Goa, and who were distinguished, more especially those of the more northerly tracts, by their cunning, courage, and ferocity. These nautical banditti have haunted these regions since the time of Alexander the Great, and probably longer, and, although for the present suppressed, would soon relapse into their old practices were the pressure that keeps them under removed.

Within a century the population of Bombay has increased more than tenfold. In 1716 it was estimated at 16,000 souls; in 1816 the result of a census made by government gave the following numbers, which may be depended on, *viz.*

British not military	1,840
Ditto, military and marine	2,460
Native Christians, Portuguese, and Armenians ...	11,500
Jews.	800
Mahomedans	28,000
Hindoos	103,800
Parsees	13,150
Total......	161,550

The number of houses was then 20,786, or about eight persons to a house. The above statement does not include the temporary sojourners and floating population, resorting to the island for transitory and commercial purposes, but not making it their permanent residence. The aggregate of these was computed by Mr. Warden in 1814, at 60,000 persons, and by the missionaries, in 1816, at from 60,000 to 75,000 persons annually. The floating population above alluded to, consists of Carnatas, Ghauties, Carvas, Maharattas, Arabs, Persians, Goa Portuguese, Parsees, and a large proportion of seafaring men. The number of crimes committed by this miscellaneous population is remarkably small; in May 1821 there were only ninety-three prisoners of every description, and of these only twenty-four were under criminal charges.

Among the Europeans the rage for country houses prevails as generally as at Madras, and is attended with the same inconveniences, all business being necessarily transacted in the fort. The generality of the country houses are comfortable, and even elegant, and though not so splendid as those of Calcutta and Madras, are equally well adapted to the climate, and enjoy more beautiful views. Some of the rich natives have houses of great extent, the children of the family continuing to live under the same roof, even after they are married. The lower classes have small huts, mostly of clay, covered with a mat made of palmira leaves. Their wages are a great deal higher than in Bengal, but food is dearer; palanquin bearers receive seven and eight rupees each per month. The only English church is in the fort. The Portuguese and Armenian churches are more numerous, both within and without the walls; but of the native Christians in Bombay by far the greater number are usually termed Portuguese, and frequent Portuguese chapels. Besides these religious edifices there are three or four synagogues, with many mosques and Hindoo temples. The largest of these is in the Black

Town, one mile and a half from the fort, and is dedicated to the worship of Momba Devi.

The Armenians form a part of these eastern societies of Christians, who differ in point of faith, discipline, and worship, both from the Greek and Latin churches, and have shewn an inviolable attachment to the opinions and institutions of their ancestors, under the severest trials of oppression. They are not numerous in Bombay, but form a very respectable class of Christians, and have one church within the fort. They are occasionally visited by one of the forty-two archbishops, who are subject to the Patriarch of Eckmiazin. By far the greater proportion of these archbishops are titular prelates, whose chief duty is the visiting of their numerous churches dispersed over the eastern world. Besides the church at Bombay they have within the limits of their society churches at Surat, Bussora, Bagdad and Bushire.

The Parsee inhabitants possess nearly the whole of the island, and seem to have perfectly domesticated themselves in their new abode, since their expulsion from Persia by the Mahomedans. They are an active, loyal body of men, and contribute greatly to the prosperity of the settlement. In general they are a tall, comely race, athletic and well-formed, and much fairer than the natives of Hindostan; but the females are more remarkable for their chastity than cleanliness. The girls are delicate and pleasing, but the bloom of youth soon disappears, and before twenty they grow coarse and masculine, in a far greater degree than either the Hindoos or Mahomedans. In every European house of trade there is a Parsee partner, who usually supplies the largest portion of the capital. They wear an Asiatic dress, but they eat and drink like the English. In the morning and evening they crowd to the esplanade to pay their adoration, by prostration, to the sun; on these occasions, however, the females do not appear, but they still go to the well for water.

Most of the original Parsee customs continue unaltered, particularly their mode of sepulture, which is as follows. The body of the defunct is deposited in a cylindrical building, open at the top, about fifty-five feet in diameter, and twenty-five in height, filled up solid to within five feet of the top, excepting a well fifteen feet in diameter in the centre, the part so filled being terraced with a slight declivity towards the well. Two circular grooves, three inches deep, are raised round the well, the first at the distance of four, the second at the distance of ten feet from the well. Grooves of the like depth and height, and four feet distant from each other, at the outer part of the circle, are carried straight from the wall to the well, communicating with the circular ones, to carry off the water. The tomb by this means is divided into three circles or partitions, the outer for the men, the middle for the women, the inner for the children. There they are respectively placed, wrapped loosely in a piece of cloth, and left to be devoured by the vultures; which is soon done, as numbers of these birds are always seen watching and hovering round the charnel-houses for their prey. The friends of the deceased, or the person who has charge of the tomb, come at the proper time, and throw the bones into their receptacle, the well in the centre. From the bottom of the well subterranean passages lead, to remove the bones and prevent the well from being filled. Men of large property build one of the above sort for themselves. The public tombs are five in number, but not all in use, and are situated about three miles northwesterly from Bombay fort. The sun and sea partake with fire in the adoration of the Parsees. Their year consists of twelve lunar months, but they have no subdivision of time into weeks.

The markets of Bombay cannot be expected to equal those of Calcutta, but in variety and qualities of the articles they certainly excel those of Madras. The bazar mutton is hard and lean, but when well fed and taken

care of, is as good as the English; kid is always good, and poultry abundant, but not good unless fed for the purpose. The fish are excellent, but the larger kinds not plentiful. The bumbelo resembles our large sand-eel, and after being dried in the sun, is usually eaten at breakfast with a dish of rice, butter, and split-pease coloured with turmeric, and named kedgeree. The prawns are uncommonly fine. The island is too small to furnish much game, but the red-legged partridge is not uncommon, and snipes are sometimes seen. The frogs here are large, and are eaten by the Chinese and Portuguese. The common and sweet potatoe are very good at Bombay: but the vegetable for which Bombay is celebrated all over the east is the onion. Potatoes are now produced in this quarter of India in the greatest abundance, although so recently introduced; the Bombay market is supplied with this root from Gujerat, and also with some cheese, which is hard and ill-flavoured. The buffaloe furnishes milk and butter, and occasionally beef: but Europeans in general are prejudiced against it.

There is a great difference in the character and habits in society of the natives of our capitals and those of the interior; indeed a person who has resided solely at Bombay cannot have an intimate knowledge respecting the habits and manners of the natives of the distant provinces of India. Not many years ago a Hindoo widow at Bombay wanted to burn herself along with her husband's corpse, which being prevented, she applied to the governor, who refused permission; upon which she crossed the harbour to the Maharatta shore, and there performed the sacrifice. The European society is here less numerous, and the salaries of the public servants smaller, than at the two other presidencies: economy is consequently more attended to; but the style of living is frequently elegant, and always comfortable and abundant. The position of Bombay apparently ought to be healthy, but it is said to be the reverse, the liver complaint being more frequent and fatal here than in any other part of India. Exposure to the land breeze which sets in every evening is frequently followed by a fever; moderate living, and cautiously avoiding all sorts of extremes, is found by experience most conducive to longevity. A literary society has been for many years established at Bombay similar to that of Bengal, and in 1825 no less than three English newspapers and one native newspaper were published weekly. Many charitable and religious institutions have also been established.

As a place of consequence Bombay owes its origin to the Portuguese, to whom it was ceded in A.D. 1530, having been before a dependency on a chief residing at Tanna in Salsette. On account of its fine harbour, a fort was erected by that nation; but the vicinity of Goa, the Portuguese capital of the Indies, prevented its becoming in their hands a station of importance. Two derivations are assigned to the name, one from the Portuguese, Bom Bahia (a good bay), and the other from the Hindoo goddess Bomba Devi.

This island was ceded to Charles the Second in June 1661, as part of Queen Catherine's fortune; and in March 1662 a fleet of five men of war, commanded by the Earl of Marlborough, was despatched with 500 troops under Sir Abraham Shipman, and arrived at Bombay on the 18th September 1662, but the Portuguese governor evaded the cession. The English admiral demanded Bombay and its dependencies, comprehending Salsette and Tanna; while the Portuguese interpreted the treaty to signify Bombay only. The troops were removed to the island of Anjediva, where the mortality was so great that the surviving commanding officer, Mr. Cooke, was glad to accept the island of Bombay on any terms, and to this place they were transferred in February 1664-5, the survivors mustering only 119 rank and file. Such was the inauspicious

commencement of this afterwards flourishing settlement, which in the hands of the Portuguese had remained almost a desert. Mr. Cooke may be considered the first English governor of Bombay; on the 5th Nov. 1666 he was succeeded by Sir Gervase Lucas.

It was soon discovered that his Majesty had made an unprofitable acquisition, and that the East-India Company were much injured by the trade carried on by persons in the king's service, who sold European goods for which they paid no freight. In consequence of these and other reasons, the king, on the 27th of March 1668, by letters-patent, transferred the island of Bombay from the crown to the East-India Company, in free and common soccage, as the manor of east Greenwich, on the payment of the annual rent of £10 in gold, on the 30th of September of each year. The revenue of the island, shortly after the cession, was estimated at £2,823 per annum.

Sir Gervase Lucas died the 21st of March 1667, and was succeeded by the deputy-governor, Capt. Henry Geary. At the commencement of the government Mr. Cooke, the first governor, endeavoured to assemble a force at Salsette, assisted by the Jesuits, in order to re-establish himself at Bombay: but ineffectually, the first governor proving also the first rebel. In 1667-8, the revenue had increased to £6,490; the garrison was 285 men, of which number ninety-three were English; the rest Portuguese, French, and natives. On the 23d of September 1668, Bombay was taken possession of for the East-India Company by Sir George Oxenden, the Company's chief governor, and the troops were transferred from the King's to the Company's service along with the arms, ordinance, and stores. Sir George died in 1669, and was succeeded by Mr. Gerald Augier as chief at Surat, and governor of Bombay, which place continued extremely unhealthy, and much molested by the depredations of the Maharatta pirates. In 1672-3 a strong Dutch fleet appeared off Bombay, and created much alarm; but after reconnoitring, it disappeared without making any attack. In the succeeding year there were 100 pieces of cannon mounted on the fortifications, and the garrison consisted of 400 regulars, of which the greater number were Topasses, and 300 militia. In 1676 letters-patent were obtained from the king to establish a mint at Bombay, at which they were empowed to coin rupees, pice, and budgerooks.

Mr. Augier died in 1677, and was succeeded at Bombay by Mr. Henry Oxenden. At this period Bombay continued of little commercial or political importance, which proceeded in part from the vigorous government of Aurengzebe, then on the throne of Delhi, and the rising power of the Maharattas under the martial Sevajee. In 1679 the island of Henery was occupied by the troops of Sevajee, and the beginning of next year the island of Henery was taken possession of by the Siddee or Mogul admiral; the Bombay government not daring to oppose either, although kept, from their proximity, in a constant state of alarm. In 1681 Mr. John Child, the brother of Sir Josiah Child, was appointed president of Surat, one of the junior counsellers being appointed to act as deputy governor of Bombay. In 1683-4, in consequence of the capture of Bantam by the Dutch, the Court of Directors constituted Bombay an independent English settlement, and the seat of the power and trade of the English nation in the East-Indies.

On the 23d December 1683 Capt. Richard Kegwin, who commanded the Company's garrison, assisted by Ensign Thompson and others, seized on Mr. Ward, the deputy governor, and such members of the council as adhered to him, and assumed the government. The garrison, consisting of 150 English soldiers and 200 Topasses, were joined by the inhabitants of the island, who elected Capt. Kegwin governor, and declared they would only acknowledge the King's authority, although during the

interval between the acquisition of the island and this date, the East-India Company had expended £300,000 at Bombay, on fortifications and improvements. In 1684-5, Capt. Kegwin negociated a treaty with Raja Sambajee, from whom he recovered 12,000 pagodas due to the Company; and on the 19th November 1684, he surrendered the island to Sir Thomas Grantham, on condition of a general pardon to himself and adherents. He had not, it afterwards appeared, embezzled any of the Company's money in the fort, which was restored to them entire, but had subsisted during his rebellion on the fiscal resources of the island.

In 1686 the seat of government was ordered to be transferred from Surat to Bombay, and Sir John Child dying next year, the office of president devolved on Mr. Harris, then a prisoner at Surat, but liberated by the Mogul government next year. In 1688-9 the Siddee's fleet (the Mogul admiral's) invaded Bombay, and got possession of Mahim, Mazagong, and Sion, and kept the governor and garrison besieged in the castle. An order was soon after obtained from Aurengzebe, directing the Siddee to withdraw his troops; but the evacuation did not take place until the 22d June 1690, when the lands belonging to the Portuguese Jesuits were seized, they having been active in promoting the views of the Siddee during the invasion. In 1691-2 the population of Bombay was much reduced by the plague, so that of the civil servants only three remained alive. In 1694 Sir John Gayer arrived as governor at Bombay, which he found in a most disastrous state, principally caused by the depredations of the English pirates on the Mogul trading ships, Aurengzebe insisting that all the loss sustained by his subjects should be made good by the East-India Company. These pirates, in 1698, possessed two frigates of thirty guns, cruizing off Cape Comorin under Capt. Kidd, who was afterwards taken and hanged; one of fifty guns, one of forty, and one of thirty guns, off the Malabar coast.

In 1698 Sir Nicholas Waite was appointed resident at Surat, on the part of the new, or English East-India Company; and in 1700, by his intrigues, procured the imprisonment of Sir John Gayer and Mr. Colt, the old or London Company's servants. At this time, Bombay was in a very weakly condition, and under constant alarm of invasion from the Maharattas, Arabs, and Portuguese. In 1702-3 it was again visited by the plague, which carried off many hundreds of the natives, and reduced the garrison to seventy-six men. In 1708, the rival Companies having united, Sir Nicholas Waite was dismissed; but Sir John Gayer, the legitimate governor, still continuing in confinement at Surat, Mr. Aislabie was appointed; and such was the continued feebleness of the settlement, that the Bombay government this year declined receiving an envoy from the King of Persia, for fear he should observe the weakness of the place, both by sea and land. With the junction of the rival East-India Companies Mr. Bruce's authentic narrative concludes, and no documents have as yet been discovered to fill up the intervening period until A.D. 1748, from which date the following governors have occupied the chair, but the necessity of condensation does not permit the insertion of historical details.

Governors.	Assumed the government.	Quitted it.
William Wake, Esq.	1748	17th Nov. 1750
Richard Bouchier, Esq.	19th Nov. 1750	27th Feb. 1760
Charles Crommelin, Esq.	27th Feb. 1760	27th Jan. 1767
Thomas Hodges, Esq.	28th Sept. 1767	23d Feb. 1771
William Hornby, Esq.	25th Feb. 1771	1st Jan. 1784
Rawson Hart Boddam, Esq.	1st Jan. 1784	9th Jan. 1788
Alexander Ramsay, Esq.	9th Jan. 1788	6th Sept. 1788
Major-General Medows	6th Sept. 1788	21st Jan. 1790

Governors.	Assumed the government.	Quitted it.
Sir Robert Abercromby	21st Jan. 1790	28th Oct. 1793
George Dick, Esq.	Nov. 1793	5th Sept. 1795
John Griffiths, Esq.......................	6th Sept. 1795	27th Dec. 1795
Jonathan Duncan, Esq.	27th Dec. 1795 died	11th Aug. 1811
George Brown, Esq......................	11th Aug. 1811	12th Aug. 1812
Sir Evan Nepean	12th Aug. 1812	——
Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone	1st Nov. 1819	——
Sir John Malcolm.........................	 1827	——

At present Bombay rules the whole north-western coast of India, and its influence is felt along the shores of Persia and Arabia. The territorial possessions under its immediate jurisdiction received, in 1818, an immense augmentation by the extinction of the late Peshwaship, and now comprehend the following important and populous collectorates, *viz.*

South of Bombay:

Darwar, Southern Concan,
Candeish, Poona.
Northern Concan,

North of Bombay:

Ahmedabad, Surat, and
Kaira, Broach.

Besides these, the whole of Gujerat is more or less tributary, and both Cutch and Cattywar pay for subsidiary forces. The natives of the above districts are among the most intelligent and industrious of Hindostan, and from hence large quantities of cotton and cotton goods have long been exported. The British provinces being interspersed by the territories of numerous petty native states, it is difficult to define with precision the superficial extent under its direct control; but in the present circumstances of Hindostan, the distinction is of little importance, and the bonds of connexion must inevitably be drawn closer every year, until at last all discrimination will become unnecessary. In 1813 the annual revenue of the Bombay presidency amounted to 64,20,569 rupees; in 1824 to 1,62,06,900 rupees.

The Bombay native army, although the fewest in number, is the most ancient of the three presidencies, sepoys having been disciplined towards the close of the seventeenth century. One hundred from Bombay and 400 from Tellicherry joined the Madras army in 1747, and a company of Bombay sepoys were present at the battle or route of Plassey. The lowest height taken is five feet three inches, and the average height is only five feet five inches; but the men are active, patient, steady, and capable of supporting great fatigue on a slender diet. From its origin to the present day, the Bombay army has been composed of all sects and castes, Mahomedans, Hindoos, Jews, Rajpoots, Coolies, Borahs, Maharattas, &c. Possibly it is owing to this intermixture that the Bombay sepoys have always been prompt to volunteer for any distant expedition, while it goes against the grain with the Bengal and Madras native soldiers. But this is not their only merit, for they are patient under privations, brave in action, and faithful to their employers, exhibiting, in the last respect, a meritorious example to the sepoys of the other presidencies.

A court of judicature is held at Bombay, which has lately been assimilated to those of Calcutta and Madras; and numerous religious, charitable, and literary institutions have also been established within the last ten years. The distance from Calcutta to Bombay by the post road is 1,308 miles, which has been done by express in thirteen days and a half; and it would be easy now to arrange telegraphic stations that would communicate intelligence within a fraction of that time, but the increased celerity could only be of importance during the exigencies of some dangerous hostility. Travelling distance from Calcutta 1,308 miles, from Delhi 965, from Hyderabad 480, from Madras 770, from Poona ninety-eight, from Seringapatam 620, and from Surat 177 miles.—(*Lord Valentia*,

Bruce, Lieut. Hawkins, Warden, M. Graham, Fullarton, Public Documents, &c.)

BOMRRA.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, seventy miles E. by S. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1818 it was dependent on Nagpoor, and in a state of great desolation, the land assessment, notwithstanding its extent, being only 1,050 Sumbhulpoor rupees.

BOMORI.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, thirty-three miles S.W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 10′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

BOMRAUZPOLLAM.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty miles from Madras; lat. 13° 25′ N., lon. 79° 30′ E.

BONAA.—A small island in the eastern seas, twenty-five miles in circumference, lying off the north-west extremity of Ceram; lat 8° S., lon. 128° 5′ E.

BONARATTE.—A small island in the eastern seas due south of Saleyer, principally inhabited by Buggesses, who in 1822 possessed fifty trading prows. On this island and Calawa (a small one in the neighbourhood), fifty years ago the Buggess sovereign was said to have had an establishment for the education of dancing girls.

BONAWASI.—A town in the Canara province, division of Soonda, forty-seven miles north from Bednore; lat. 14° 32′ N., lon. 75° 8′ E. This place is noted by Ptolemy, and is said to have had a dynasty of kings who ruled 1,450 years before the Christian era.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BONG.—A wild unknown country thus named, situated east of Assam, and due north of Ava, adjacent to Yunan in China, and between the latitudes of 26° and 27° N., and 96° and 97° E. lon. The chief branch of the Irawady is supposed to pass through this district.

BONGHEER (*Vanaghari, a woody mountain*).—A small district in the province of Hyderabad, occupying the tract north-east of the capital, and bounded on the south by the Mussy river. It is rather in a better condition with regard to agriculture and population than the residue of the Nizam's territories, and contains a considerable number of small towns and villages. The town of Bongheer stands in lat. 17° 28′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E., twenty-five miles E.N.E. from Hyderabad.

BONTAIN.—A small district in the island of Celebes, situated at the southern extremity. The bay of Bontain (lat. 5° 33′ S., lon. 119° 47′ E.), is described by Capt. Carteret as large and capacious, and safe anchorage for ships during both monsoons. On the coast of this bay are several small towns; that named Bontain lies to the north, and had then a small palisadoed fort. Wood, water, and fresh provisions, fowls, fruit, and rice, may be procured here in abundance; and the woods swarm with wild hogs, the Mahomedans abstaining from such unclean food. The tides here are very irregular: commonly it is but once high water and once low water in twenty-four hours, the difference seldom exceeding six feet.—(*Stavorinus, Wilcocke, &c.*)

BONY (*or Boni*).—A principality in the island of Celebes, extending twenty leagues along the western shore of the Gulf of Bony, from the river Chinrana to the river Salinico. This gulf, or arm of the sea, is by the natives called Sewa, by Europeans Buggess Bay, and deeply indents the island of Celebes to the south. To the north of Bony, along the bottom of the bay, the country is well inhabited, and abounds in sago, cassia, and pearls. Near the bottom of the gulf, at the river Loo, boat-building is carried on; also some traffic in gold, sago, cassia, and pearls. The inhabitants along the coast fish for biche de mer, which they carry to Macassar and sell to the Chinese. On the east side of the bay the country is not so well inhabited, its navigation being extremely

hazardous to vessels of burthen, on account of the numberless shoals and small rocky islets it contains.

This is the proper country of the Buggesses (named also Bugis and Bouginese), who have always been noted as a very superior race to the generality of the Eastern islanders in courage, enterprize, and intellect. They are the universal carriers of the archipelago, and have been long noted for the fairness of their dealings and the magnitude of their speculations, more especially the Wadjo or Tuadjo tribe; and when trade is mentioned, it may generally be considered as having reference to this race of Buggesses. Yet in navigation and the art of ship-building they have remained stationary for a great length of time; the early voyagers describing their prows and equipments exactly as they exist now. Many of these prows are lost at sea; few taken by pirates, as they defend themselves to the last extremity. They were formerly also noted for fidelity as well as courage, and, like the Swiss in Europe, were employed as mercenaries in foreign armies, in which capacity they served in Siam, Cambodia, and throughout the islands.

The federal government of Bony consists of eight states, each governed by its own hereditary despot, the executive power being vested in one of their number selected from the rest. The office of president has long been elective in the family of the Prince of Bontuallah, even now little more than a considerable village. The chiefs in the Buggess language are named Arung, and the president Arunga; but he can do nothing without the consent of the other members of the electoral college, and is not entrusted with the care of the public treasury. The individuals composing the council of seven hold also executive offices, and choose the prime minister, through whose agency justice is administered, and decrees issued in the name of the king and people of Bony. Any individual of the privileged families, even a female or infant, may be elected into the council, and ultimately to the supreme government. Such is the constitution of Bony, which may be considered as the prototype of all the principalities in Celebes, of which the Buggess may be reckoned the original language. On the sea-coast it is much mixed with Malay, and is to be found pure only among the tribes of the interior and in ancient books. The alphabet consists of twenty-two letters; the form of the character is peculiar, but resembles the Batta and Tagala. The koran has been translated into the Buggess language, and they also possess traditional songs and romances in that dialect.

According to Stavorinus the first monarch of the Buggesses, affirmed by them to be of celestial origin, instituted the code of laws which is still observed. Early in the seventeenth century they were compelled by the Macassars to adopt the Mahomedan, but we have no account of their prior religion or superstitions. Raja Polacca, a powerful prince who died in A.D. 1796, had rendered himself paramount over all the other native tribes, and nearly independent of the Dutch. From this date a regular succession of princes and queens took place until 1823, when Arung Polacca died, and was succeeded by his sister, Arung Datoo. In 1814, in consequence of the insulting conduct of the Bony Raja, he was attacked by the British army under General Nightingale, and defeated with much slaughter, his camp and residence being stormed, and himself ultimately deposed. In 1825 the capital of Bony was taken by the Dutch, apparently without resistance.—(*Stavorinus, Forrest, Leyden, Crawfurd, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

Booboan.—A small island in the eastern seas, lying off the south end of the island of Basseelan, and having a small hummock at the northern extremity, which is woody, but inhabited.

Bool.—One of the southernmost of the Philippines, situated about the tenth degree of N. latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by thirty the average breadth.

Boolacoomba.—A district subject to the Dutch, situated at the southern extremity of the island of Celebes. The land is fertile in rice, abounds in game, and has extensive forests; but the timber is not well adapted for the construction of houses. During the west monsoon the anchorage before Boolacoomba is dangerous for ships, small vessels, however, can run into the river Kalikongaung. Near the mouth of this river stands the Dutch pallisadoed fort Carolina, which in 1810 was captured by a party of 100 men landed from the Cornwallis; next day they were unexpectedly attacked by a numerous body of confederated natives, good fighters, both by sea and land, and with difficulty managed to repulse them.—(*Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Boondee (*Bundi*).—A principality of Rajpootana, situated at the south-eastern extremity. The Boondee Raja is of the Hara tribe, and was formerly a power of consequence; but by the loss of the greater part of his territories, which were formed into the distinct government of Kotah, under one of the Raja's own family, his revenue was greatly reduced and boundaries circumscribed. Prior to 1818 this principality was bounded on the south and east by the Chumbul, on the west by the pergunnah of Jehajghur, on the north by certain parts of Jeypoor and the partially independent state of Ooniara. The present Boondee frontier confines, with that of Kotah, about five miles north-west of the Chumbul. The whole, in peaceable times, was supposed capable of yielding six lacks of rupees per annum; but in 1817 more than half was usurped by Sindia and Holcar, so that not more than 60,000 rupees came into the Boondee treasury, besides one lack assigned to the Raja's relations and military retainers, while the peasantry were impoverished by the endless exactions extorted from them by every chieftain who had sufficient power. These sufferings were in a great measure brought on the Raja and his subjects on account of the services rendered by them in 1804 to Colonel Monson and his army during their disastrous retreat, in return for which, at the pacification in 1805, he was abandoned by the British government to the tender mercies of the Maharattas. Though late, his reward came at last: for by the arrangements of 1818 he was released from all foreign intruders, and received so considerable an addition of territory, including the town of Patun (altogether about 2,500 square miles), as stamped him an efficient member of the general federation of Hindostan, under the protection of the British government.—(*Tod, Malcolm, Hunter, &c.*)

Boondee.—A city in Rajpootana, or Ajmeer, the capital of the abovementioned principality; lat. 25° 28′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. It consists of two parts, Old Boondee and New Boondee. New Boondee is enclosed by a high stone wall, extending up the acclivity behind it, and connected with the fortifications on the cliff above, it is built of stone, and most of the houses are two stories high. The natural situation of Boondee, its air of antiquity and numerous temples, its spacious chowk and magnificent fountains, together with the lake at the north-east quarter, combine to render it an interesting city; and for picturesque effect, the great street opening up to the palace is, of its kind, almost without a parallel. At the lower extremity stands the great temple dedicated to Krishna, covered with groups in relievo, and close by is the figure of a horse cut in stone; and still higher a stone elephant, as large as life, raised on a pedestal; rows of grotesque shops, lining each side of the avenue, extend to the hill, on which the palace, with its turreted windows and battlements, is seen in its full dimensions. It is elevated to

a height of perhaps 400 feet, partly supported by the perpendicular rock, but principally by solid piers of masonry; the appearance of this edifice, when viewed from without the walls, is not less striking.

Old Boondee is situated to the west of the present town, covers a considerable surface, and contains also some fine fountains and pagodas; but it is in a state of general decay, and almost deserted by its population. The pass through the hills to the north of Boondee is nearly seven miles in length, and at the most contracted point is defended by three distinct barrier gateways; between these straights the hills expand into successive amphitheatres of remarkable beauty, in the basins of which a series of artificial lakes have been formed, communicating with each other, and supported by a great dam raised in the gorge of the pass immediately above Boondee. In one of these amphitheatres the Raja has a summer-house and garden, with some Hindoo temples and other buildings. Near the second gateway is the ancient cemetery of the family, containing several handsome chiteries, highly finished, with figures of elephants in combat, caparisoned horses, &c. in very bold relief; and adjoining the gate, on the Boondee side, is a palace called the Sook Mahal, built on a terrace that stretches from hill to hill, and forming the embankment of the great lake, which during the rainy season pours a cataract into the deep pool below.—(*Fullarton, &c*)

Boongra.—A town, the head of a pergunnah, in the province of Malwa, belonging to the principality of Banswara, and situated on the left bank of the Mhye river, nine miles N.E. by N. from that town; lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 74° 40′ E. It stands on the high road to Pertaubghur.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Booransee Peak.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindoostan, thirty miles N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 79° 15′ E.; 8,644 feet above the level of the sea.

Booreea.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 9′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

Boorhana.—A town in the Delhi province, forty-five miles N. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E.

Boorhanpour (*Barhanpura*).—The ancient capital of the Candeish province, situated on a fine plain on the north-west bank of the Tuptee; lat. 21° 19′ N., lon. 76° 18′ E. About fifteen miles to the S.E. is a range of hills that separate Candeish from Berar. This is one of the largest and best built cities in the Deccan, most of the houses being built of brick, and many three stories high, with neat façades, framed in wood as at Oojein, and universally roofed with tiles. The handsomest portions of Boorhanpour are the market-place, a square of considerable extent, and a street called the Raj Bazar; but there are many other wide and regular streets, paved with stone. The Tuptee here is a clear and beautiful stream, but of no great breadth, and easily fordable in the dry season. On a high bank, close to the river, are the ruins of the fort and palace of its ancient sovereigns, now only remarkable for the great space they cover, the shapeless masses of broken masonry, and the court-yards choked up with weeds and rank vegetation. The vicinity of Boorhanpour for some distance is likewise strewed with the ruins of Mahomedan tombs, mosques, and chapels; yet the city, taken as a whole, is remarkably devoid of architectural interest. Almost the only public edifice worthy of observation is the Jumma Musjeed, a fine pile of masonry, constructed of grey stone in a style peculiar to this quarter of India, with an extended façade supported on low arches; two handsome octagonal minars, with a grand terrace and reservoir in front, but destitute of cupolas, which form the distinctive feature of the mosque in almost every other part of Hindostan.

Boorhanpour is abundantly supplied with water brought from four miles distance by aqueducts, and distributed through every street, the stream being conveyed at a certain depth below the pavement, and the water drawn up through apertures by means of leather buckets attached to a windlass. This is the head-quarters of a singular sect of Mahomedans named Bohrah, whose moullah or chief priest resides at Surat. They distinguish their own sect by the name of Ismaeeliah, deriving their origin from one of the followers of Mahomed who flourished in the age succeeding that of the prophet, from whose native country, they assert, they originally came, *via* Gujerat. The Bohrahs are the great merchants in this quarter of Hindostan, as the Parsees are at Bombay, and here occupy about 500 of the best houses, being the most wealthy of the commercial class. They are of a goodly exterior, with Arab physiognomies, and wear a sort of Arabian costume. About two miles from the city they have a small mosque, with extensive cemetries adjoining, crowded with tombs.

This city, along with the rest of the province, was acquired by the Maharattas about A.D. 1760, during the viceroyalty of Islam Khan, since which period it has been progressively decaying, and in 1816 every village in its neighbourhood was in ruins, owing to the unceasing incursions of Bheels and Pindarries. It was captured by a British army in 1803, but restored to Dowlet Row Sindia, with whom it still remains. The grapes grown in the vicinity of Boorhanpour and Asseerghur (where they are in great profusion) surpass those of Malwa, and are probably the most delicious in India. Travelling distance from Oojein 154 miles; from Nagpoor 256; from Poona 288; from Bombay 240; from Agra 506; and from Calcutta by Nagpoor 978 miles.—(*Fullarton, Hunter, Sutherland, &c.*)

Booro.—An island in the eastern seas, situated between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and the 126th and 127th of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy-five miles, by thirty-eight miles the average breadth. The principal Dutch settlement on this island is Fort Defence, situated in a marshy plain on the S.E. of Cajelli or Booro Bay, where ships are under shelter during both monsoons, while the land winds which prevail at night facilitate their departure; on which account it is much frequented by South Sea whalers. Wood, water, buffaloes, rice, a profusion of tropical fruits, sago, and the best cajeputty oil (the trees abounding), may be procured here, as also various sorts of cabinet, dye, and aromatic woods, which the Chinese junks come in search of. A portion of the inhabitants are Mahomedans, and possess a mosque; but the interior is peopled by the aboriginal Horaforas, who live dispersed among the mountainous jungles, subsisting on sago, wild fruits, and the produce of the chace. The south of Booro was formerly much infested by the mop-headed Papuas of New Guinea.—(*Forrest, La Billardiere, Bougainville, Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Boosnah.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, fifty miles W. by S. from Dacca; lat. 23° 31′ N., lon. 89° 39′ E.

BOOTAN.

(Bhutan.)

This country on the west is separated from the Raja of Sikkim's territories by the course of the eastern branch of the Teesta, from whence it stretches easterly to an undefined extent. To the north it is divided from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; and to the south it is bounded by Bengal, and a number of rude tribes scattered along the northern side of the Brahmaputra. In its greatest dimensions it may be estimated at 250 miles in length, by ninety the average breadth. The term Bhote is applied by the Hindoos

not only to the country named Bootan by Europeans, but also to the tract extending along and immediately adjoining both sides of the Himalaya, in which sense it is a very extensive region, occupying the whole mountainous space from Cashmere to China. In the present article, however, the word Bootan is restricted to the country of the Deb Raja, comprehended within the limits above specified, and the name of Bootanners confined to his subjects, in order to distinguish them from the more expanded tribe of Bhooteas (*Bhotyas*), although in aspect, manners, and religion, there is so entire a resemblance as to leave little doubt of their descent from the same origin.

The northern portion of this province presents nothing to the view but the most misshapen irregularities; some mountains covered with perpetual snow, others with perennial verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees. Almost every mountain has a rapid torrent at its base, and many of the most elevated have populous villages amidst orchards and other plantations. In its external appearance it is the reverse of Tibet, which is a level table-land. The mountainous boundary of Bootan towards Tibet forms part of the great chain which geographers term Mount Imaus, or Emodus, and of which frequent mention is made in the mythological tales of the Brahmins by the name of Himalaya. At the base of the hills towards the Bengal frontier is a plain of about twenty-five miles in breadth, choked up with the most luxuriant vegetation, and which, from its inaptitude to supply the wants or facilitate the functions of human life, was for a long time properly considered as belonging to neither. The exhalations arising from the multitude of springs which the vicinity of the mountains give rise to, are collected and confined by the woods, and generate a most pestilential atmosphere. The trees are large, and the forests abound with elephants and rhinoceroses; but the human animal is much debased in form, size, and strength.

The climate of Bootan exhibits every degree of variation, for at the time the inhabitants of Poonakha are cautious of exposing themselves to an almost vertical sun, those of Ghassa feel all the rigours of winter, and are chilled by *never-melting snows*; yet these places are within sight of each other. Where the climate is temperate, almost every favourable aspect of the mountains coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared, and adapted for cultivation by being cut into horizontal beds. The country abounds with excellent limestone, but the natives appear unacquainted with its uses for agricultural purposes. The season of the rains about Tassisudon, the capital, is remarkably moderate, there are frequent showers, but none of those heavy torrents which accompany the S.W. monsoon in Bengal. In the hilly tracts of Bootan strawberries, raspberries, and blackberries are found growing wild, and there are also apple, peach, pear, and apricot trees. The forests abound with a variety of handsome timber trees, such as the ash, birch, maple, yew, pine, and fir, but no oak trees. The fir is often seen eight and ten feet in girth. The turnips of Bootan are remarkably good, being large, free from fibres, and very sweet. The best fruits are oranges, peaches, apricots, pomegranates and walnuts. For the purposes of agriculture the Bootanners conduct water across the chasms in the mountains through the hollow trunks of trees. In this country a large proportion of the field labour is performed by females, who plant and weed; and on them eventually the task falls of applying the sickle and brandishing the flail. In all these laborious offices they are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, and to many other grievous hardships.

Wild animals are not numerous in Bootan, but monkeys of a large and handsome kind abound, being held

sacred by the Bhooteas as well as by the Hindoos. The species of horse indigenous to Bootan is called Tanyan, or Tangun, from Tangust'han, the general appellation of the assemblage of mountains that constitutes Bootan Proper, the breed being altogether confined within its limits. They are usually thirteen hands high, and remarkable for their symmetry and just proportions. They are in general distinguished by a tendency to piebald, those of one colour being rare They are short-bodied, clean limbed, and although deep in the chest, extremely active. Accustomed among their native mountains to struggle against opposition, they seem to inherit this spirit as a principle of their nature, and hence have acquired among Europeans a character of being headstrong and ungovernable, though in reality it proceeds from an excess of eagerness to perform their task.

A caravan despatched by the Deb Raja visits annually the Rungpoor district, bringing the coarse woollen manufactures of Bootan, Tibet cow-tails, bees'-wax, walnuts, ivory, musk, gold-dust, silver in ingots, some Chinese silks, tea, paper, and knives, besides the Tanyan horses that carry the goods. These adventures are entirely on account of the Deb Raja, to whom the goods belong, having been mostly received in kind in payment of the revenues; but the sum total in a national point of view is quite insignificant. The returns usually consist of English woollens, indigo, dried fish, quicksilver, cloves, nutmegs, incense, sandal-wood, sheet and wrought copper, tin, gunpowder, otter-skins, rhinoceros' horns and hides, cotton cloth, coral, and swine. The aggregate amount of the whole seldom exceeds 30,000 rupees, of which indigo alone engrosses half the value. The privilege of thus sending a caravan into Bootan Proper has never been conceded even to the Bengalese, by this jealous and timid government, but the latter are allowed an unrestricted trade in the low country, through which they drive up many swine to the mountains. Small as this trade formerly was, it is said to have latterly declined, although the heavy duties formerly levied on the Bootan imports were abolished by Lord Cornwallis. It seems probable, however, that this insignificant traffic, so eagerly sought after by the British authorities, both at home and abroad, has not so much actually declined as taken a different direction. The presents sent by the Deb Raja to Calcutta in 1772, when afraid of his ears, consisted of sheets of gilt copper, stamped with the black eagle of the Russian armorial, talents of gold and silver, and bulses of gold-dust; bags of genuine musk; narrow woollen cloths, the manufacture of Tibet; and silks from China. The narrainee, a base silver coin struck in Cooch Bahar, about tenpence in value, is current throughout Bootan, where there are local prejudices against a mint.

The military weapons of the Bootanners are a bow and arrow, a short straight sword, and a faulchion reflected like a pruning knife. In war they use arrows tainted with a poison procured from a plant as yet unknown to Europeans. In appearance it is an inspissated vegetable juice, much resembling crude opium. Their matchlocks are very contemptible, and of no use but in such weather as will admit of the primings taking fire in an open pan. They are dexterous in the management of the sword and shield, and excel in archery; they have wall pieces, but no cannon. A strong jealousy of all intercourse with Hindostan has long prevailed throughout this region, which has not been diminished by the recent progress of the British arms, among mountains which had never been conquered, or even seriously invaded by any of the Mahomedan powers.

In person there is a remarkable dissimilarity between the feeble-bodied, meek-spirited natives of Bengal, and their active and Herculean neighbours the mountaineers of Bootan, many of whom are six feet in height. A strong similarity of feature per-

vades the whole Bhootea race, who, though of a dark complexion, are more ruddy and robust than the Bengalese, with broader faces and higher cheek bones. They are greatly afflicted with glandular swellings in the throat, from which the natives of Bengal are exempt, it being calculated that one person in six is more or less disfigured by goitres. The eye of the Bootanners is a very remarkable feature, being small and black, with long pointed corners, as if stretched and extended by artificial means. Their eye-lashes are so thin as to be scarcely perceptible, and the eyebrow is but slightly shaded. Immediately below the eye is the broadest part of the face, which is rather flat, and narrows from the cheek-bone to the chin, a character of countenance prevalent among the Tartar tribes, and more particularly among the Chinese. The skins of the Bootanners are smooth, and most of them arrive at a very advanced age before they have even the rudiments of a beard; their whiskers are also of very scanty growth.

Their houses are in general only one story high, but the palace of the Deb Raja at Tassisudon consists of many floors, the ascent to which is by lofty stairs, an unusual circumstance in Bootan. In a country composed of mountains, and intersected by torrents, bridges must necessarily be of such frequent occurrence, that a traveller has usually several to pass in a day's journey. These are of various construction, generally of timber, but sometimes swung on iron chains. Woollen cloth for raiment, meat, spirits, and tea, are in use among the Bootanners, who are strangers to the subtle niceties and refined distinctions of the Brahminical Hindoos. As a refreshment, tea is as common in Bootan as in China, but it is made by a very different process from that which Europeans are accustomed to follow. In preparing this beverage (if it may be so called) the Bootanners make a compound of water, flour, salt, butter, and Bohea tea, with some other astringent ingredients, all boiled and beat up together. When they have finished a cup, they lick it with their tongue on all sides, in order to make it clean, after which they wrap it up in a piece of scarlet silk. In some cases their medical practice is rendered inconvenient to the physician, who, when the Deb Raja takes a dose of physic, is obliged to swallow, however unseasonably, a proportionate quantity of the same medicine.

The ministers of religion in Bootan are of the Lama Buddhist sect, and form a distinct class, confined solely to performing the duties of their faith. The laity, pretending to no interference in matters of spiritual concern, leave religion with all its rites and ceremonies to those who are attached by early obligations to its doctrines and austerities. Although there is no distinction of caste among the Bootanners, yet they are not without differences in religious opinions, the precepts of Sakhya Singh (the school to which they adhere) differing essentially from that of Gautama, and permitting the consumption of every species of food that is considered impure and abominable by the Brahmins. Om manni paimi om, an invocation to which ideas of peculiar sanctity are attached by the inhabitants of Bootan and Tibet, are words inscribed on most of their public buildings. They are also frequently engraved on rocks in large and deep characters, and sometimes rendered legible on the sides of hills, by means of stones fixed in the earth of so large a size as to be legible at a considerable distance. In the performance of any religious duty, the Bootan functionaries admit of no interruption whatever, which strictness has always proved a source of infinite delay and inconvenience to the British diplomatists who have had business to transact with them.

The Deb Raja, who resides at Tassisudon, is usually considered to be the supreme head of the province, but in strict sense he is only the secular governor, the legitimate sovereign being the Dharma Raja, a

supposed incarnation of the deity; but as this sacred person never interferes in lay affairs, he is only known to foreigners through the transactions of his deputy the Deb Raja. There are said to be eighteen passes from the low countries to the mountains; some of the most important are placed under the control of officers named subahs, the extent of whose power is uncertain. In the hot and rainy season the subah usually resides at a fortress among the mountains; but in the cold season he descends to the lower hills, and often visits the plains, either to enforce obedience or to invade the neighbouring states, on which occasions their attacks exhibit a combination of cowardice, perfidy, and the most fiend-like cruelty. Both the lower hilly country and the plain belonging to Bootan are partitioned into small domains, each having a distinct officer for the collection of the revenue, and the superintendence of the police. Some of these are chiefs of the subdued communities, for no genuine Bhootea has settled in these parts; others are native Bootanners of the mountains. The hereditary chiefs pay a fixed revenue, while the Bootan officers collect the land tax on account of government.

The Deb Raja's authority is best established in the plain, and in the country adjacent to the line of road leading from Bengal to Tassisudon the capital; for with the country to the east and west we are but little acquainted. The principal towns are Tassisudon, Poonakha, Wandipoor, Ghassa, and Murichom. The nearest governor to the Sikkim frontier is the subah of Dellamcotta; next to him the subah of Luckidwar; then the subah of Buxedwar; and east from the Gudhadar river is the subah of Burradwar. The next governor towards the east is the subah of Repudwar, who has under him a jungly district named Raymana, bounded on the east by the Sonkosh; and still further east is the subah of Cherang, a place at the head of a pass, four days' journey from Cutchubarry. The country between the Sonkosh and the Ayi belongs to a tributary, and beyond the river last mentioned the Bijnee territories commence. In A.D. 1820 the Deb Raja claimed a principal portion of the lands of Maraghaut, occupied by the Raja of Cooch Bahar, which, after investigation, were declared by the British government to belong to Bootan.

In ancient Brahminical legends the denomination of the country we call Bootan is Madra, but respecting its early history we have no record or tradition. The first intercourse of its government with the British nation happened in 1772, in which year the Deb Raja suddenly invaded the principality of Cooch Bahar, and meeting with little opposition from the natives, rapidly gained possession of the country. This was decidedly the first instance of hostility between the two states, and it had proceeded to the last extremity before the government of Bengal, which had hitherto derived no benefit from the contested territory, was apprized of what had befallen it. The invaders were easily driven back by two battalions of native infantry, and next year pursued by a detachment under Capt. John Jones into their own territories, where the fortress of Dellamcotta was taken by storm. This exploit greatly alarmed the Bootan Raja for his own safety, and induced him to apply to the Teshoo Lama, through whose mediation a peace was subsequently arranged. After the defeat and flight of the Bootanners in 1772, Durp Deo, the chief of Bykantpoor, who had joined them, sent a messenger from the jungles, to which he had fled, begging to be restored to his estate, in consideration of which he engaged to pay a tribute of 25,000 rupees per annum in place of 10,000 rupees, which had hitherto been his stipulated payment. These terms were accordingly acceded to, and the zemindar was put in possession, not only of his former estate, but also of what had been alienated by the Bootanners.

The present possessions of Bootan to the south-west are separated from

the Bengal districts by the river Teesta, as far south as Gopaulgunge, a village situated on the eastern bank of that river. To the south of this point the British territories cross the Teesta, and intermix with those of Bootan in a most irregular manner, the boundary line in this quarter being altogether imaginary. Portions of territory belonging to each state are completely insulated by the possessions of the other, as exemplified in the extensive tract named Phulacotta, which lies to the west of the Teesta, and is completely surrounded by the Bengalese zemindary of Bykantpoor, without any intelligible or even perceptible land-marks. The retention of Phulacotta, however, is attended with such lucrative advantages to the subah of Dellamcotta and the local officers, that no hopes are entertained of being able to effect its purchase or exchange for some other space of adequate value.

The European reader will scarcely believe, that along the whole line of British frontier, from the Sutuleje to the Brahmaputra, there exists, and always has existed, a regular and persevering system of encroachment on the British possessions, which, although frequently detected and baffled, has in many instances proved successful. In these attempts, no nation has proceeded more prosperously than the Bootanners, whose encroachments have not been confined to that part of the boundary west of Cooch Bahar, although it began there. The line of frontier east of the Sonkosh, to the confines of Assam, has been still more subjected to their intrusions, as in this quarter they have managed to appropriate to themselves the large estate of Bidyagong, immediately adjacent to Bijnee, where their interference, as will be seen under that head, was still more irregular. The Bidyagong estate was obliged originally to deliver annually forty elephants to the British government, which last, as the feudal superior, had the sole right of nominating to the succession. It is true that the Bidyagong chief gave the Bootanners yearly about 400 rupees worth of cotton cloths and dried fish; but this was done merely to conciliate the good-will of a tribe, which from its position was always able to harass his estate. The Bootan government never dared to dispute the sovereignty of the estate with the Moguls, from whom the delivery of the goods abovementioned was kept a profound secret. The Deb Raja, while the attention of the British presidency was directed elsewhere, got possession of the Bidyagong zemindary, and some years after, when the circumstances of the case were reported, it was determined to forego all claim to an object that appeared of such trivial importance. During the correspondence that took place before that resolution was definitively adopted, the Deb Raja, on being required to produce his documents, replied that it was not customary for the Bootanners to be regulated by writings, but by possession.

In 1815 Kishen Khant Bos, a native agent, was deputed to Lassa by the Bengal government to negociate some boundary arrangements with the Deb Raja, but could not get any further than Bootan, where he remained above a year. On his return he gave in a report of his journey and description of the country he had visited, which document, however, threw little or no light on the history of this singular country, although it is most particular in recording the monthly wages paid to the government servants. In 1816 the advance of the Chinese forces towards Nepaul excited a considerable sensation at the court of the Deb Raja, where it was ascribed to the intrigues and misrepresentations of the Gorkhas, and the Deb expressed his hopes of assistance, in case he incurred the displeasure of the Chinese government by refusing to act against the British. These amicable professions, however, were probably elicited by the existing state of affairs in Bootan, where in consequence of some difference between the Dharma, or spiritual, and the Deb or secular Raja,

the deposition of the latter was contemplated, and a civil war expected. To prevent this extremity the Deb Raja declared he would resign the reins of government, after the approaching month of June, to Lama Sree Tap, who before had disputed with him the succession to the office of Deb Raja, and had been deposed after having actually assumed that dignity; but the sincerity of these protestations was much questioned, and it was not generally supposed that he would actually perform what he had professed in the moment of danger. In the event of a contest, one party will endeavour to conciliate the favour of the British, the other that of the Chinese, whose direct authority will probably be ultimately established throughout Bootan, as it has been in Tibet.—(*Capt Turner, F. Buchanan, Saxon, Public MS. Documents, D. Scott, Kishen Khant Bos, &c.*)

Booton.—An island in the eastern seas, lying off the south-eastern extremity of Celebes, about the fifth degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at eighty-five miles, by twenty the average breadth. It is separated from the island of Pangansane by a strait which is passable for square-rigged vessels.

This island is high and woody, but well cultivated, producing rice, maize, yams, a variety of tropical fruits, and abundance of the wild bread-fruit tree, the kernel of which is indigestible. Fowls, goats, buffaloes, and fish may also be procured. The inhabitants are ugly and of short stature, their religion the Mahomedan, and language (on the sea-coast) the Malay. The Dutch had formerly a settlement in the bay of Booton, where they sent annually an officer, named the extirpator, to inspect the woods and destroy the clove trees. On the east-side Booton is indented by a bay called Dwaal, or Mistake Bay by the Dutch, into which, if a ship be drifted by the currents, she cannot get out again until the west monsoon sets in, and even then it is difficult. A Dutch governor going to Banda, was detained in this vexatious state for a whole year.—(*Stavorinus, Labillardière, Forrest, Bougainville, &c.*)

Bopaul (*Bhupala, a lord or king*).—The capital of a small independent Mahomedan principality in the province of Malwa, which forms the exact boundary of the old Hindoo province of Malwa, one gate being within its boundaries, and the other in Gundwana, lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 77° 30′ E., 100 miles E from Oojein. It has the possessions of Sindia and of Kotah to the north, the territories of Sindia to the east; the Nerbudda to the south, and the districts of Sindia and Holcar to the west. The surrounding country is an uneven jungly tract, but the soil is generally fertile, especially in the vallies, and it is well watered by numerous streams of which the Betwa is the most considerable. In 1820 the whole principality contained 1,571 jaghire and khyrat (charity), and 2,559 khalsa or crown villages, of which last 714 were uninhabited. In 1819 the gross revenue of Bopaul amounted to nine lacks of rupees, but it was expected to reach twenty lacks in 1824.

The town of Bopaul is surrounded by a stone wall; but presents a ruinous appearance, notwithstanding it is the residence of the Nabob Foujdar Khan. On the outside is a suburb equally decayed, and on the south-west a ghurry or native fortification, built on the solid rock, with a stone wall and square towers, but all much dilapidated. Under the south-west angle of this fort is a large tank, formed by an embankment at the confluence of several streams, one mile and a half in breadth, and extending to the west four miles and a half, whence issues the river Bess. On the east of the city there is a smaller tank having two dams across, extending in length about two miles from north to south, the source of the small river Patra.

The town and territory of Bopaul are occupied by a colony of Patans,

to whom they were assigned by Aurengzebe, in whose service was Dost Mahomed, an Afghan adventurer, the founder of this petty state, who reigned in A.D. 1723. After his death the usual mixture of usurpation, assassination, and other irregularities inherent to all native dynasties, took place, but some member of the first chief continued to occupy the throne, with more or less vigour, until the end of the eighteenth century, when the superior energy of Vizier Mahomed (although of an illegitimate origin) raised him to the musnud. In 1812 he made a long and successful defence of Bopaul against the combined forces of Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja. In the urgency of his distress, he earnestly solicited assistance from the British government: but, notwithstanding the testimonials he produced from General Goddard in favour of his predecessors, a deaf ear was turned to his supplications. Being thus abandoned to his fate, and harder pressed than ever, he was apparently on the eve of being subdued, when he died in 1816. The Pindarry power having now attained its acmé, interference became unavoidable, and the Bopaul state was not only taken under the protection of the British, but its territories so greatly augmented, that in 1817 Capt. Henley estimated that in five years they would yield the Nabob an annual revenue of from twenty five to thirty lacks of rupees. Nusser Mahomed Khan, the reigning Nabob, died in 1819, and was succeeded by Moneer Mahomed Khan, twelve years of age. The eldest son of the late Nabob's brother was raised to the throne, and affianced to Nusseer Mahomed's daughter, his widow being continued in administration of Bopaul, now a substantive state of Central India. The affairs of this state appear to have been tolerably well managed by Nusser Mahomed's ministers, and the British interference has been little called for; the most convincing proof that can be given of the good condition of a dependent ally.—(*Malcolm, Prinsep, Henley, Hunter, &c.*)

Borasambah.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Patna, eighty miles S.W. by W. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1817 Raja Beneer Neehil Singh was assessed by Major Roughsedge at 500 Nagpoor rupees.

Boregaum.—A town surrounded by a mud wall in the province of Candeish, one mile south of the Sookta river, which separates Asseer from Cundwah, eleven miles N. by E. from Asseerghur. In 1820 it contained 500 houses. Lat. 21°37′ N., lon. 76°30′ E.

Boriah.—A small petty chiefship in the province of Delhi. In 1820 the British government interfered to settle a dispute between the two rannys of Bhugwunt Singh, the deceased Raja, and entrusted the management of affairs to Dya Kooar, the senior Ranny.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Borkhampti.—This country is situated adjacent to Assam beyond the Langtan mountains, which are said to give rise to the Dihong or western branch of the Brahmaputra; but as yet scarcely any thing respecting it is known. The south-eastern portion of the Langtan mountains are said to be visible from Seedeeya. It is supposed by some to lie along the upper course of the Irawady river, and to be a district of Moonkoong, or Mogoun, and tributary to the Burmese. It is said to be separated on the east from China, and on the north from Tibet by lofty mountains covered with snow, and accessive from the south by the course of the Irawady. The mountains, according to the same authority, are inhabited by Khunoong Mismees, who trade with China and Tibet. Silver abounds in the north-eastern, and iron in the south-eastern portion of these mountains. Of the iron they fabricate the Khampti dhaws or axes, which are held in great estimation. These Borkhampties are said to have come from that part of the Shan country situated east or south-east of Mogoun.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

BORNEO.

(Varuni.)

The largest of the Asiatic isles, extending from the seventh parallel of north, to the fourth parallel of south latitude, and from the 109th to the 118th of east longitude. The kingdom of Borneo, or Burni, by Europeans termed Borneo proper, having been the first state visited by them, may have given rise to the erroneous application of the name to the whole island, which by the native inhabitants, and throughout the eastern archipelago, is universally termed Pulo Klemantan. It is of a solid, compact, egg-like figure, and not so deeply indented by arms of the sea as the Eastern islands generally are, yet it possesses many spacious bays and harbours, and is surrounded by muddy shores, and numberless isles and rocky islets, many of the latter not larger than a common European house. In length it may be estimated 750 miles, by 350 the average breadth, giving a superficial area of 262,500 square miles.

The interior of this island being still wholly unexplored, we are compelled to trust to the inaccurate communications of the ignorant natives to Europeans formerly settled at th different factories, or occasionally visiting the sea-coast on trading voyages. This species of information is obviously not entitled to much attention, from a concurrence of testimony, however, we may infer, than in general, for above thirty miles inland, it continues marshy and alluvial, interspersed with small hills, almost covered with jungle, but to a certain degree cultivated. Further inland it becomes mountainous, and is covered with forests, swarming with wild animals, and producing that species of large ape, named by Malays orang outang, or man of the woods. These mountains are said to stretch in ranges running north and south, between which rivers flow, and extensive lakes stagnate. If we may credit Malay accounts, this central tract is also partially inhabited, as they assert that many of the articles, both of traffic and subsistence, sold on the sea-coast to Europeans, are brought from a distance of twenty days up the country.

The rivers of Borneo best known to Europeans are those of Banjarmassin, Passir, and Borneo proper, which were ascertained to be navigable for boats above fifty miles from their junction with the sea; but they have never been ascended higher by Europeans, and rarely even by the resident Malays. In a country drenched by the solstitial rains there are probably many other streams and rivers, but of a short course, and seldom navigable, which is an additional obstacle to the exploring of the interior, to those interposed by the Mahomedan natives of the coast, who endeavour to monopolize the traffic by preventing all communication between the inland natives and the Chinese or Europeans.

The climate of the northern portion of Borneo much resembles that of Ceylon, being from the abundance of verdure always cool, and not subject to the hot land winds that prevail on the coast of Coromandel. It is watered also by numerous fine streams, several of which fall into the bay of Malloodoo without bars. In this quarter are the high mountain and large lake of Keeneebaloo, near to which live the wild Idaan, named also Maroots, Horaforas or Alforeze, and Dayaks. According to native accounts the lake of Keeneebaloo is 100 miles in circumference, and its waters (which are represented to be of a whitish colour) from five to six fathoms deep. On the main-land of the north coast, opposite to Balambangan and Banguey, are forests of tall timber without underwood, and free-stone is also found in abundance. Here are large flocks of cattle named lisang, and flocks of deer and wild hogs feed in the plains without fear of the tiger. The country produces, when properly cultivated, all sorts of tropical fruits, grains, and vegetables, but the climate has hitherto proved very destructive to European constitutions.

The coasts of this island are possessed by a number of petty Mahomedan states, some of which are said to be of long duration. The resident population of these is a mixture of Malays, Japanese, Buggesses, and Macassars, a few Arabians, and some converted aboriginals. They have in all ages been a rapacious, treacherous race, much addicted to piracy, with whom Europeans have never yet been able to establish a secure intercourse. A considerable number of Chinese are always found among them; and it is a remarkable fact, that their unarmed and unprotected junks trade without difficulty, along a coast so fatal to Europeans, yet their cargoes are valuable, and their vessels defenceless. The interior is chiefly occupied by the agricultural tribes named Dayaks, very few of whom have as yet embraced the Mahomedan religion; that of the Dayaks is but little understood, although some of their usages have attracted attention from their singularity. In many places the possessions of these Dayaks extend quite to the sea-shore, more especially on the eastern coast within the straits of Macassar. There are also considerable colonies of Chinese settled along the principal rivers in the interior, where in some instances they appear to have established a sort of independence. The lofty central mountains of Borneo are represented as occupied by tribes of Punams, who, like the Bedahs of Ceylon, are said to exist in the very rudest stage of savage life. At present the maritime states are chiefly the following, viz. 1. Borneo Proper, 2. Coti, 3. Passir, 4. Banjarmassin, 5. Matten, 6. Pontiana, 7. Sambas. The chiefs or rajas of these piratical states possess each one or more strong-holds, from which, with the assistance of a pestilential climate, they have frequently repulsed European troops with severe loss.

On the north coast of Borneo, about Malloodoo Bay, is a considerable territory, the sovereignty of which has been long claimed by the Sooloos, but which, along with the adjacent islands of Balambangan, &c. was regularly ceded to the British, and at different periods assumed without any opposition from the Sultan of Borneo Proper. Although possessing a fertile soil, and irrigated by various small rivers running from the interior, it still remains nearly in a state of nature, and almost uninhabited; yet it is said to communicate by land carriage of about fifty miles with the great lakes of the interior, in the vicinity of the gold-producing formations. Should any settlement be hereafter made on this coast, which appears to be British property, it ought to be fixed on a territorial, and not on a commercial basis, for all the latter have failed. There has been a colony of Cambodians, one thousand in number, established in Borneo for above fifty years.

Some notices have been received of ruins of temples and dilapidated cities in Borneo, and of the existence of inscriptions in characters unintelligible to the Chinese, Malays, and Dayaks; but the information is quite inconclusive, and it still remains uncertain whether this island had ever attained a higher degree of civilization than it at present exhibits. That Borneo was visited many centuries ago by the Chinese and Japanese, is well established; but whether it was ever (until recently) permanently colonized by either of these nations, is not satisfactorily ascertained. Porcelain jars, plates, vases, and earthen utensils, the manufacture of China and Japan, are frequently discovered in different parts of the country; and such is the veneration in which these articles are held, that a single antique jar has been known to be purchased by the Dayaks of the interior for a sum little short of £200 sterling; these are prized as the supposed depositories of the ashes of their ancestors, by the unconverted Dayaks, and appear to be their sole objects of veneration, for at present they know not the use of priests, images, temples, or even of brick, mortar, and stones.

In the province of Luccadow, up

the great river Lawai, and nearly in the centre of Borneo, according to Malay information, there are twenty-four tribes of different appellations, whose bodies are not tattooed, and six that have this distinguishing mark; a tribe like the Papua negroes; and another as fair as the Chinese, and, like them, wearing trowsers. The natives call their island Klemantan, or Quallamontan; and the names of many of the rivers, mountains, and districts, greatly resemble those of the Ultra Gangetic provinces. When the Portuguese first visited this island, in A.D. 1530, they found the Mahomedan religion regularly established on the sea-coast.

Borneo has long been known to abound in gold, principally in alluvial deposits, from whence it is procured by the natives and Chinese, but most effectually by the latter, who carry on their operations principally in a territory situated between Sambass and Pontiana, named Montradak, from the chief mining village, situated inland two days' journey by water. The whole tract here specified is alluvial, being intersected by numerous rivers flowing from the interior, of considerable size. The Chinese population in this division have been estimated at 36,000, including 4,000 women of a mixed breed; of this number 6,000 work the mines, while the rest are occupied in trade and agriculture. They are almost independent of the native chiefs, paying a tax to the Sambass Raja, in whose territories the mines are, of about 4,000 Spanish dollars per annum. The mines usually consist of longitudinal excavations, following the course of the mineral strata, and of very superficial depth, seldom exceeding sixteen feet; the auriferous earth is washed every thirty-five days, in which space of time a mine wrought by 200 labourers will yield from 250 to 500 ounces of the precious metal in dust. The annual produce of the great mines of Montredak have been estimated at 88,362 ounces of gold, and the total number of Chinese in or near the gold districts at 200,000 persons. Antimony is found accumulated in large masses or mountains at Sadang and Sarawa, from whence it is exported to Singapoor in large quantities; indeed the supply appears inexhaustible.

Borneo is the only island of the Eastern archipelago in which the diamond is found, and principally limited to the territories of the Banjermassin and Pontiana chiefs. The most productive mines are at a place named Landak, from which the diamonds of Borneo are designated to distinguish them from those of Hindostan; and it is remarkable that the same alluvial tract is also the richest in gold. These mines appear to have been long wrought by the Dayaks, or aboriginal savages, but probably with little skill or industry; and even now diamonds are little prized by the Chinese, the resident Buggess merchants being the great traffickers in these gems In 1815 the petty chief of Mattan possessed one of the largest diamonds in the world, obtained about a century ago in the mines of Landak; in the rough state it weighed 367 carats, equal to 183½ when cut and polished, only eleven carats and a half less than the Emperor of Russia's diamond, and forty-six carats and three quarters heavier than the Pitt diamond; its real value is £269,378, which is £34,822 less than the Russian, but £119,773 more than the Pitt diamond. It is reported since the above date to have fallen into the hands of the ambitious chief of Pontiana.

The inhabitants of the interior, or aborigines, have received various appellations, in the south and west Dayaks, in the north Idaan, and in the east Tiroon; but they appear in every respect to resemble the Horaforas, or Alforese, of the Dutch and Portuguese. The latter are indigenous in nearly all the eastern isles, and are sometimes found in the same island with the Papuas, or oriental negroes; but the latter have never yet been discovered by Europeans in Borneo. The Dayaks are often lighter in colour than the Mahomedans of

the sea-coast, and generally excel them in strength and activity; they are divided into a great variety of tribes, independent of each other, and varying in dialect, but they have a general resemblance in language, customs, and manners. Europeans have, as yet, had few opportunities of investigating the condition of the Dayaks, as the Malay and Buggess traders, who alone frequent the interior, can give little account of the country, beyond the distance of one place from another, and the articles of traffic to be procured at the different marts.

In appearance the Dayaks are handsomer and fairer than the Malays, of a more slender make, with higher foreheads and noses; their hair long, strait, and coarse, and generally cut close round their heads. They wear a small wrapper round their loins, and frequently tattoo their bodies. Their houses are wooden erections of such a size as to contain several families, sometimes amounting to 100 persons. They cultivate rice, collect gold dust and diamonds, and trade in rattans, dammer, and the other products of their forests. In their diet they are subject to few restrictions, hogs, rats, snakes, and all kinds of vermin, being equally welcome. Their arms are a sampit or blow-pipe, and poisoned arrows, and a large heavy knife. Few are acquainted with fire-arms except in the immediate vicinity of the Malay states. Their riches consist in the number of jars, gongs, porcelain, cups and saucers, &c.; but the first are most valued: some from superstituous motives, as high as 1,000 dollars. As subjects they are industrious, particularly disposed to agriculture, and so docile, that in many parts a handful of Malays tyrannize over thousands of these peaceful cultivators of the soil.

In their manners the most singular feature is, the necessity imposed on every person of some time in his life imbruing his hands in human blood, no person being permitted to marry until he can show the skull of a man he has slaughtered. It is not necessary, however, that this trophy should be the result of his own prowess, on the contrary, the head hunter proceeds with his party to the vicinity of another tribe, where he lies in ambush until he can surprise some unsuspecting wretch, whose head is immediately chopped off. Occasionally they pounce on a solitary fisherman, who is in like manner decapitated forthwith. He then returns to the village in triumph, is joyfully received, and the head hung up over the door. When a death occurs the corpse is reduced to ashes, and a slave killed, in order that he may act in the same capacity in the next world. Rich men purchase slaves when they are cheap, to have them at hand in case of emergency. The heads they preserve with great care, and sometimes consult in divination. The religious, or rather superstitious, opinions connected with these barbarous practices are not yet correctly understood.

As may be supposed, the practice of head-stealing, so universal with these petty tribes, must cause endless wars and feuds among them; but the men are stimulated by the contumely they experience, both from the females and their more fortunate comrades, if they cannot perpetrate a murder and carry off the head. Mr. Burn relates that he saw a person who had the reputation of having obtained eleven heads, while his son, although only a lad, had obtained three. When a married woman commits adultery, the husband in order to wipe off the disgrace kills one, two, or three of his slaves, and sometimes also beats his wife, or if he can procure a head, he may quit her and get another. In short, no transaction of importance appears to take place in which the possession of a human head is not considered a necessary element.

The Biajoos may be considered as the same race with the Dayaks, Idaan, and Horaforas, with their manners somewhat diversified by the nature of their pursuits, which are those of a maritime life. They are in reality a kind of sea gipsies, or itinerant fishermen, who live in small covered

boats, and enjoy a perpetual summer on the Indian ocean, shifting to leeward from island to island, with the variations of the monsoon. In some of their customs this singular race resemble the natives of the Maldives, like whom they annually perform a sacrifice to the god of evil, by launching a small bark loaded with the sins and trespasses of the people, which are imagined to be transferred to the unfortunate crew that may be so unlucky as to meet with it.

The Biajoos on the north-west coast are more civilized than the others, and while the English colony at Balambangan existed, used to supply it with rice, fowls, and other provisions. By the Malays they are named Oranglaut, or men of the sea. These fishing Biajoos have boats of about five tons, with whole families on board, who catch sea slugs in seven and eight fathoms water. They also dive for it; the best, which is the black sort, being only found in deep water, some of the weight of half a pound each. They are sold to the Chinese at the rate of five dollars per picul, or 133⅓ pounds. Some Biajoos dwell close to the sea on the islands scattered round Borneo, and at the mouths of the rivers, where their houses are raised on posts. Many of this sedentary class have become converts to the Mahomedan religion.

On the north-east coast is a savage people named Orang Tidong, or Tiroon, supposed to be another variety of the Biajoo race. These reside up the river, and fit out vessels to cruize among the Philippines, and on the north-eastern seas of Borneo. They are a hardy race, and subsist mostly on sago during their voyages. The Malays of Magindanao affect to despise them, but when they meet among the Philippines, which are their common prey, they do not molest each other. These are described as occasional eaters of human flesh. Their boats are small and the planks being merely sewed together, they can easily take them to pieces and carry them overland when cooped up in any bay by the Spanish guarda costas. Their conduct to their *prisoners is cruel in the extreme, often mutilating the strongest, or leaving them to perish on some desert sand-*bank. *They sell a great deal of sago to the Sooloo islanders, who after*wards dispose of it to the Chinese junks. There remains another class of Biajoos, who wander about Celebes, Borneo, and the Philippines, and who are composed of a medley of different nations; such as Chinese with long plaited hair; Javanese with bare throats, plucked beards, and whiskers; and Macassars with black shining teeth. They are said mostly to follow the Mahomedan and Chinese religions.

Comparing the condition of this island, in civilization and cultivation, with other parts of India, the population of which is better known, although of so immense a size, we cannot assign it a greater number of inhabitants than from three to four millions; not including in the estimate the orang outangs, which some authors assert is also a cooking animal. The inhabitants of the north coast have a tradition that their country was once subject to China, and in modern times it has become a grand receptacle for the surplus population of that overflowing empire. In 1818 the Dutch commissioners at Pontiana put forth claims to the whole of the island, which, if admitted, would in addition to Java, which they have long possessed, and Sumatra, which they acquired by treaty in 1823, give them dominion over three of the largest islands in the world, besides two-thirds of Timor and Ceram. In 1824 the Chinese gold miners at Sinkawang were in a state of insurrection against the Dutch, who at the commencement were unsuccessful, and obliged to evacuate that portion of the coast. At this date all the Dutch establishments on the west coast of Borneo depended on the residencies of Pontiana and Sambass, or on the subordinate residencies of Mampava and Landak; the chief of which was to bear the title of Resident on the west coast of

Borneo. Mr. Muller, who was employed by the Batavian government (about 1823), surveyed the whole *north-western coast of the island*, and also fixed many important geographical points of the interior; but many of these surveys were subsequently lost, in consequence of his having been murdered by the natives. —(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, Raffles, Crawfurd, Hunt, Stavorinus, Wilcocke, Elmore, &c.*)

Borneo Proper (*pronounced Brunai*).—A Malay kingdom on the north-west coast of Borneo, and the most civilized portion of the island. The sea-coast of this state extends about 700 miles, with a depth of territory inland of from 100 to 150 miles. To the west it confines on Sambas at Tajong Data, lat. 3° N., lon. 110° 36′ E.; to the east it is bounded by the tract claimed by the Sooloos, marked by the mouth of the Sandakan river in lat. 5° 50′ N., lon. 118° 15′ E. To the south Borneo Proper has various savage tribes, such as the Kayan, the Dusum, the Marut, and the Tatao. To this principality also belong the following islands, *viz.* Malaweli, Banguey, Balambangan, Balabak, and Babullan, among which are several fine harbours.

The most important rivers on the north-west coast are those of Rayung and Batavia, which lead to Sibeta, the capital of the Kayan, the most powerful of the unconverted tribes in this quarter of the island. The others are the Mahori, and that of Borneo, which is navigable for vessels of 300 tons twenty miles above its junction with the sea. On the north-eastern coast is the Sandakan, or China Batangun river.

The interior of the Bornean dominions present extensive chains of mountains, the most remarkable of which, named Keeneebaloo, in lat. 6° north, owing to its great elevation, is visible from both sides of the island, which is here comparatively narrow. The geology of Borneo Proper, as far as European knowledge goes, *is primitive, and destitute of the trap formations so common in the Sunda chain; neither have any volcanoes been discovered within the* limits of this kingdom. Further west, between the second and third degrees of north latitude, the districts of Sarawak and Kasinloka abound in gold, and the semi-metals antimony and zinc. In the Kayan country iron and tin are found, and even wrought by the natives.

The land animals of this territory hitherto discovered are the elephant, rhinoceros, and leopard, but not the royal tiger; the bear, horse, buffalo, ox, hog, dog, cat, duck, and common fowl. The three animals first mentioned are only found in a single corner of this vast island, the districts of Ungaang and Paitna; nor are they to be found in the archipelago further east. The horse, the goat, and the dog have been imported and domesticated, and the range of the first is still limited to the districts of Pandasan and Tampasok, between the fifth and sixth degrees of north latitude. *The ox and hog are natives* of the forest, and the jungles of Borneo furnish an endless variety of the ape and monkey tribes, some of them nearly approaching the human form. The seas yield the turtle, pearl oyster, mother-of-pearl oyster, and the biche de mer, or esculent sea slug; the land, rice, sago, black pepper, camphor, cinnamon, bees'-wax, and many woods, useful and ornamental.

Besides the Malays and other Mahomedans, Borneo Proper is inhabited, or rather *infested by numerous* tribes of barbarian savages, differring in dialect, and carrying on an incessant warfare. A small district, or even a village, here constitutes a nation, desiring nought but the heads of its neighbours. The races of most note are the following:—the Malays, Sooloos, Bisjoos, Dasuns, Illanos, Kadayans, Bisayans, Maruts, Kalamuts, Tutungs, Kyajoos, Kayans, Dayaks, Tataos, Kanawuts, and Melandos. The unconverted tribes, in manners and customs bear a close

resemblance to each other. They wear only one piece of cotton or bark cloth round their loins, and usually nothing else; but the Kayan warriors occasionally wear also bear and leopard skin coats and caps. Their arms consist of a blow-pipe for discharging poisoned arrows, swords, spears, and long shields. At the chief town of the Kayan, who in the scale of Bornese greatness are a powerful people, some cannon and muskets are to be found. Some of the tribes are mischievous and ferocious, others less so, a few inoffensive, and even industrious; but in one ruling passion they are unanimous, *viz.* the pleasure of cutting off human heads, and then hoarding them as a family treasure. The origin of this practice, so universal among all the savage tribes from Bengal to the extremity of Papua, has not yet been traced, or its motives satisfactorily explained. Some of these tribes dwell in miserable huts covered with leaves; but the majority in houses of immense size, capable of accommodating from 50 to 200 persons; security from hostile attacks being apparently the object. Indeed the Bornean savages are far from the lowest stage of social existence, for they have all some knowledge of agriculture, and several understand even the smelting and manufacture of metals. They do not appear to have any system of religious belief, nor any gods, idols, priests, or temples, but apparently abundance of superstitious fears. None of the native Bornese tribes have any alphabet, which is remarkable, considering how universal alphabetical symbols are in all the other large islands, and argues a permanent inferiority, originating probably from its geographical figure, Borneo, like Africa, being a solid mass, without indenture by gulfs, bays, or inland seas.

In Borneo Proper the ruling and most civilized race is the Malay; yet, with all their converts to the Arabian faith, they are said not to compose more than the tenth part of the whole population. The Malayan emigration to this island is supposed to have taken place about the middle of the thirteenth century. The king is designated by the Hindoo title of rada (raja), with the epithet of iangdi per tuan (he who lords it); but his despotism is modified by select ministers who form his council, and from thirty to forty hereditary pangerans or nobles. This principality is generally reckoned of some duration, as it is alluded to in the annals or legends of Malacca as a proud and independent state. One proof of its antiquity is the high veneration for the prince's authority, found in all ancient Malay states, but in very few of recent origin.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Forrest, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Borneo Town.—This place is situated on the north-west coast of the island, ten miles up a river of the same name; lat. 4° 56′ N., lon. 114° 44′ E. The river is navigable for ships of burthen above the town, but the mouth is narrow, and has a bar, over which there is scarcely seventeen feet water at high tide. Up to the town the water is salt, and the flood runs at the rate of four miles per hour. In the middle there is six fathoms water, and here the Chinese junks lie moored, head and stern.

The houses of Borneo are built on each side of the river on posts, and are ascended to on stairs and ladders. It resembles Venice in having small water channels instead of streets. All the traffic is transacted on board of boats, which float up and down the river with the tide, and are in general managed by women. This city has long carried on a trade with China, the Sooloo Isles, the Philippines, the Straits of Malacca, the west coast of Borneo, and with the small principalities on the east side of the Malay peninsula. For some time past the China trade has been interrupted, but when in activity, two junks came from the province of Nanking, two from Limpo, two from

Amoy, one from Canton, and two Portuguese vessels from Macao. The intercourse between Borneo and Manilla was also formerly brisk: but of late years, on account of the prevailing anarchy, has declined like that of China. The Manilla trade was conducted chiefly by Bornese boats, who made the voyage from one place to the other in seven days. At present by far the most considerable commerce is that with Singapoor, which in 1825 employed forty prows.

Last century there was an English factory here, but for a number of years past Europeans have desisted from visiting this city, on account of its violent and anarchical government; but apparently the trade might be now with safety renewed. The commodities best adapted to this market are the following, *viz.* British and Indian cotton and woollen fabrics; opium for the native and Chinese markets, with iron, arms, and ammunition. The staple native exports are fine camphor, pepper (equal to 20,000 piculs), tortoiseshell, esculent roots, sea slug, mother of pearl shells, pearls, sago, woods for dyeing, for perfumes, and for ship-building. To these exports may be added teas, wrought and raw silks, nankins, camphor, and cassia, imported in the first instance from China. The Chinese traders construct their own junks here at a remarkably moderate expense per ton. The teak tree is not produced here; but a variety of excellent and durable woods, fit for all the purposes of naval architecture (more especially the camphor tree), are found in abundance.

In October 1825 a prow belonging to the king of Borneo Proper, above 200 tons burthen, arrived at Singapoor, having on board a diplomatic mission, consisting of the Orang Kaya Kayong, or lord of Kayong, the ambassador, and a suite of between 200 and 300 persons, who landed with much barbaric splendour. At that time there were sixteen Bornean trading vessels in the harbour of Singapoor, and the object of the embassy was to draw closer the bonds of amity between his Bornese majesty and the British nation; the whole indicating a material advance in civilization. The reigning raja was described by his subjects as a person of superior capacity, speaking Chinese, and deciding impartially.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Forrest, Elmore, &c.*)

Boro Budor.—A remarkable Buddhist temple in the island of Java, eighteen miles N.W. from Yugyacarta. Lat. 7° 44′ S., lon. 110° 8′ E. This edifice is supposed to have been built about A.D. 1338, and is a square structure of a pyramidical shape ending in a dome, situated in the mountainous province of Kedu. It embraces the summit of a small hill rising perpendicularly from the plain, and consists of a series of six square ascending walls, with corresponding terraces; three circular rows of latticed cages of hewn stone in the shape of beehives; and finally of the dome already mentioned, which, although without the apex that once crowned it, in 1815 was still twenty feet high. The height of the whole building is 116 feet, and at the base each side measures in extent 526 feet. The hill is in fact a sort of nucleus to the temple, having been cut away to suit the purpose, and there is no cavity in the whole mass except the dome. The outer and inner side of each wall are covered with a profusion of sculpture, and in various parts are niches containing above 300 figures of Buddha, and altogether within the precincts there were in 1815 near 400 images of that deity. There are four entrances to the temple facing the cardinal points of the compass, guarded by lions (an animal that never existed in Java) as warders.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Botol Tobago.—An island in the China seas, lying within sight E.S.E. from Formosa; but which does not appear to have been visited by any European navigator. Lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 121° 57′ E.

BOURASINGHY.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-seven miles S.W. from Ganjam. Lat. 19° N., lon. 84° 45′ E.

BOUTAN.—A high round island, with several smaller ones near it, lying off the north-east coast of the Malay peninsula. Lat. 6° 32′ N., lon. 99° 10′ E.

BOWAL.—A small village in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, twenty miles N. by E. from the city of Dacca; lat. 23° 57′ N., lon. 90° 23′ E. The country surrounding this hamlet swarms with game of all sorts, among which may be enumerated elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, buffaloes, wild bears, deer of many varieties, foxes, hares, jackals, tiger-cats; and of the feathered tribes floricans (the *otis houbara* of Linnæus), peacocks, the domestic fowl in a wild state, different kinds of partridges, snipes, quail, wild ducks, teal, and wild pigeons.

BRAHMAPUTRA RIVER.—(*Brahmaputra, son or offspring of Brahma.*)—For many years past this river, on the authority of Major Rennell and Capt. Turner, has been supposed to be a continuation of the Sanpoo of Tibet; but recent discoveries have tended to bring this conjecture into disrepute, at least so far as refers to the eastern branch, or Luhit, the course of which has been traced until it diminishes to a shallow rocky stream, broken by rapids, among the range of mountains that bound Assam to the north-east. It has also been ascertained that Brahmacoond is not its source. Some geographers, however, expect that a connexion between the Brahmaputra and Sanpoo will still be established by means of the Dihong or western branch; but this appears improbable, both from the inconsiderable size of the Dihong at the furthest point to which it has been explored, and the mountainous chain (apparently a prolongation of the Himalaya) which seems to extend without interruption eastward far beyond the longitude of the Dihong. The question, however, will not remain much longer undecided, and it would be lost time at present to balance probabilities; for further information therefore respecting the upper course of this river the reader may examine the articles Assam and Sanpoo, what follows having principally reference to its lower course.

Proceeding west, the Brahmaputra reaches Goalpara, formerly the frontier town, where its expanse is magnificent and the scenery grand; but the water is extremely dirty, and the surface during the floods covered with a dusky foam, intermixed with logs of wood, vast floats of reeds, and a great variety of dead bodies, especially of men, deer, and cattle, which are scarcely less offensive to the senses than the half-burned human carcasses on the banks of the sacred Ganges.

Having quitted Assam, the Brahmaputra rushes to the notice of Europeans in the Rungpoor district with increased volume, a channel at least a mile broad, and when not encumbered with islands, continues in many places nearly the same width; but in many places these subdivide the channel into many parts and enlarge its size, so that from bank to bank there is often a distance of five miles. During the dry season in this part of its course, the water no where fills its channel, even where narrowest; in the wet season, except where there are a few scattered hills, the river everywhere overflows its banks, and in many parts deluges an extent of from twenty to thirty miles, insulating such small hills as are in the vicinity.

In the Rungpoor district the rise of the Brahmaputra usually commences in April, and in the beginning of May increases still further. This may be partly owing to the melting of the snow in the mountains; but in general the swelling of the river and the inundation are chiefly affected by the rains in the immediate neighbourhood. A few fair days always diminish its size, and it never rises much except after very heavy rain.

The rapidity and bulk of the river continue gradually to increase, and it attains its greatest elevation about the beginning of August, towards the end of which it subsides, and the current loses much of its force. The inundation contracts at the same time, and although the river rises once or twice in September and the beginning of October, it has never been known in these months to pass the bounds of its regular channel. Within the limits of Bengal the Brahmaputra is not fordable at any season, but its navigation is rendered difficult by the great number of sandbanks, and the trunks of trees half buried in its bed. Within the British territories the numberless islands and channels are undergoing incessant changes, and the like mutations may be expected to continue.

After entering Bengal the Brahmaputra makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to the south in the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which although not the tenth part of its magnitude, most unaccountably absorbs its name, and communicates its own to the huge mass of water, until they intermix with those of the Ganges near the Bay of Bengal. In 1809, the Brahmaputra threatened by a change of its course to carry away all the vicinity of Dewangunge, and perhaps to force its current into the Nattore jeels in the Rajeshahy district, which would very much disturb the modern geography of Bengal by submerging a vast extent of surface, while its old bed would become a morass.

During its journey through Bengal the Brahmaputra bears so intimate a relation to the Ganges, that one description suits both, except that during the last sixty miles above their junction, under the name of Megna, it forms a stream which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. The union of these two mighty rivers below Luckipoor now forms a gulf, interspersed with many islands, some equal in size to the Isle of Wight. The bore, which is a sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow strait, prevails in the principal branch of the Ganges and in the Megna; but the Hooghly river, and the passages between the islands and sandbanks situated in the gulf, formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, are more subject to it than other rivers.

Notwithstanding the great magnitude of the latter, it was unknown in Europe until 1765, as a capital river of India; nor did it ever among the Hindoos attain the same reputation for sanctity, or conciliate the same interest, as its female neighbour the Ganges. Among the Hindoos of Nepaul the name Brahmaputra is said to be applied to the Sanpoo; and in Assam, although the term is known, the great river, or at least that portion running south-west towards Bengal, is more commonly called Luhit. The name first mentioned signifies son or offspring of Brahma, the creator of the world, and its vast bulk in a figurative sense might entitle it to that appellation; but such is not the derivation of Hindoo mythologists. According to these sages, it owes its origin to an intrigue which took place between Brahma and Omegha, the wife of a holy man named Santona, the particulars of which, on account of their extravagant indecency, do not admit of narration.

Since the expulsion of the Burmese from Assam it has been found eligible to establish steam-boats on the Brahmaputra, and in 1826 the Court of Directors authorised the construction of machinery for two steamers of twenty-five horse power each, and drawing only three feet water. It was soon discovered that, owing to peculiar circumstances, these inventions were much more wanted on the Brahmaputra than even the Ganges, as on the first there is not only a vast space to be traversed, and a still more rapid current to be overcome; but it is also wholly without the favourable wind which for so many months in the year blows against the stream of the Ganges.

During the rains the prevailing wind along the Brahmaputra is quite adverse, being in the same direction with the stream, at least beyond the point of Dhombree, where it takes an easterly direction. The difficulty of tracking is also much greater along the Brahmaputra than the Ganges, as the continual traffic along the latter, and the uninterrupted occurrence of villages and cultivation, have made a regular road along its banks; whereas the channel of the Brahmaputra is bounded through very considerable intervals by dense and inhospitable jungles. One mile per day in such situations, and under such circumstances, is a fair average rate of advance; and a voyage from Dacca to Rungpoor, the former capital of Assam, has been found fully equal in duration to a voyage to Europe. Steam-boats will be able to overcome many obstacles that oppose the progress of common boats which they can drag up the river, carrying supplies of stores, troops, and functionaries.—(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Turner, Rennell, Public Journals, &c*)

Brala.—A small island lying off the eastern coast of Malacca; lat. 4° 5′ N., lon. 103° 40′ E.

Bramadeo (*Brahma Deva*).—A sacred spot on the west bank of the Goggra, in the great Saul forest at the foot of the Kumaon mountains, province of Delhi, about seventy-five miles N.E. from the town of Bareily. The river Goggra here penetrates the great northern barrier, and enters the plains of Rohilcund. In sublimity of scenery it yields nothing to the Ganges at Hurdwar, although the landscape has less expanse, and is of a wilder and darker character. The Goggra here rushes in a deep and beautiful rapid through a narrow ravine confined by precipitous mountains, over a bed of white pebbles, reflecting from its surface the vivid green hue of the primeval woods that overshadow it.

Bramadeo, however, has not been so fortunate as Hurdwar in attracting the notice of superstition, for one sacred peepul tree, with a small stone basement built round its trunk, is not only the sole temple, but almost the only memorial of time or humanity to be found here. The most direct thoroughfare between Bareily, and the British stations of Chumpawut and Lohoo ghaut, in Kumaon, is by this sequestered spot, in consequence of which a small commissariat dépôt was soon after its conquest established here, and a pathway five feet wide opened through the hills, which although steep and difficult, is still practicable to foot passengers during the greater part of the year. More recently the dépôt has been withdrawn; the jungle has re-spread to the margin of the river, and the spot abandoned to the wild beasts, its prior inhabitants.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Brambanan.—A village in the island of Java, province of Mataram, between the two native capitals of Suracarta and Yugyacarta, and three miles N.N.E. from the latter; lat. 7° 49′ S., lon. 110° 25′ E.

At this place are many extraordinary remains of Hindoo images, temples, and inscriptions, and more especially of the remarkable group named the "thousand temples," which occupies an oblong area of 600 feet by 550, and consists of four rows of small temples, enclosing in the centre a great edifice sixty feet high. The temples are pyramidical buildings, all of the same character, covered with a profusion of sculpture, and consisting of large blocks of hewn stone. Each of the small temples contained an image of Buddha, and in the great centre one, divided into several apartments, Siva figures, or some of his attributes. To the whole group there are four entrances, facing the cardinal points of the compass, each guarded by two gigantic statues representing warders, which measure, in a kneeling posture, not less than nine and a half feet high by eleven in girth.

The constructors of Brambanan evidently possessed the art of turning an eliptical arch and vault, but

circular arch or vault is no where found among the ruins. There is manifestly a regular design, not only in every group or cluster, but also in every single temple; and the excellence of the materials, their great solidity, and the labour exerted to complete them, are deserving of admiration. The walls are covered with innumerable ornaments in alto and basso-relievo, yet without indecency, and scarcely any thing fantastical or absurd, except the deities themselves. There are a great many images of Buddha, but the temples of Brambanan appear to have been consecrated to Siva, his images, together with those of Durga and Ganesa (his wife and son), being found in such extraordinary abundance. It has been conjectured that the earliest temples of Brambanan were built about A.D. 1188, and the most recent about 1218.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

BREWER'S STRAITS.—Narrow straits in the eastern seas, that separate the large island of Panchu from the north-eastern coast of Sumatra. The northern entrance is formed by the island of Baucalis and the main land of Sumatra; lat. 1° 36′ N., lon. 102° E.

BROACH (*Barigosha*).—A British district in the Gujerat provinces, situated principally between the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the Gulf of Cambay. This is one of the best cultivated and populated tracts on the west coast of India, and was finally acquired by the Bombay presidency at the treaty of peace concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia, in December 1803 As a particular favour the Peshwa was then allowed to retain Ahmood Jumbosier and Dubboi, being old fiefs of his family; but after his expulsion in 1817, these also, together with Dejbarah and Bahadurpoor, were incorporated with the Broach zillah.

Being so conveniently situated, the Bombay presidency made many, and not very honest, attempts to obtain this district, and had possession of it for a short time prior to 1782, but were compelled to offer it pr vately as a bribe to Madhajee Sindi to procure his concurrence to th treaty of Salbey. Since its final ce sion in 1803, with the exception a few Bheel incursions, it has enjo ed uninterrupted tranquillity; bu so many changes have taken place i its territorial dimensions, that statement of its revenue conveys li tle information as to its real cond tion. In 1818 the jumma or asses ment to the land revenue, was ru pees 17,35,085; in 1819, rupe 17,55,872; and in 1820, rupe 21,91,576.

In the old portion of the Broa district there are no Mewassie few Grassias; little variety in th soil, produce, or modes of asses ment; no unauthorized alienation and no taxes of the slightest im portance except the land-tax. Th revenue system has been long est blished, and preserved unaltered, an the courts of justice work well, an are sufficiently comprehended by classes. The country, however, h not improved in appearance so mu as might have been expected; hedg and trees are rarely seen except clo to villages, which last are clums built of unburned bricks, and ve inferior to those seen beyond t Myhie. In 1812 the population the Broach pergunnah consisted

Hindoos 60,448	} =	76,343
Mahomedans 15,895		
Broach town		32,716
Oclaseer pergunnah and town.....................		29,969
Hansoot do.......do......		18,955
Total......		157,983

(*Elphinstone, Romer, &*

BROACH.—A large and ruinous ci in the province of Gujerat, the ca tal of the above district, situated an eminence on the banks of t Nerbudda, twenty-five miles from entrance; lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 7 14′ E. It is said to derive its app lation from the Hindoo saint, d votee, or demigod, Bhrigu, and oug

properly to be written Bhrigu Khetra, or Bhrigupura, the town or place of Bhrigu. It is also thought to have been the Barygaza of the ancients, and when it surrendered to the Emperor Acber, in 1572, still continued a port of great trade. It is mentioned by Sidi Ali in A D. 1554.

The houses are here built like those at Surat and Cambay, the streets generally narrow and dirty, and in the vicinity are many dilapidated mosques and mausoleums. Being situated in a fertile country, it is plentifully supplied with provisions and game, and the Nerbudda, which washes its southern wall, abounds with carp and other fish. A considerable traffic is carried on with Surat and Bombay, principally in raw cotton, grain, and seeds of all sorts, in boats with large lateen sails. In 1812 the population by actual enumeration was found to be, Hindoos 19,836, Mahomedans 9,888, Parsees 2,992, total 32,716 persons. Since the above period, however, it has probably much declined, as in 1824 it is described as a poor, dilapidated, hot and unhealthy place The Nerbudda here is two miles across at ebb tide, but very shallow, and admits only vessels of small burthen beyond the bar at Tunkaria. A seabreeze sometimes comes up with the flowing tide, but is not always to be depended on. The climate of Gujerat, and of the other provinces under the Bombay presidency, Poona perhaps excepted, are more generally unfavourable to the preservation of European health and strength than those of the other two presidencies.

In 1807 there were twenty-five nats or societies in Broach, of the Banyan caste, comprehending 5,261 individuals of both sexes. At this place there is a pinjrapole, or hospital for animals, supported by donations from the Hindoo inhabitants. Every marriage and mercantile transaction is taxed for the pinjrapole, by which above £1,000 is raised annually; a great proportion of which is absorbed into the coffers of the managers. The only expensive animals it at present contains are milch cows, which repay the expense of their keeping. It was formerly reported that beggars were hired by the managers, that the lice and similar insects might feed on them; but in 1824 the officiating Brahmins declared this to be a calumny, in as much as every animal whatever was fed on vegetable food.

By the treaty concluded with the Peshwa and the combined Maharatta powers in June 1782, the city and pergunnah of Broach were ceded to the East-India Company; but next month of the same year they were made over to Madhajee Sindia, ostensibly as a recompense for his humane treatment of the British prisoners and hostages who surrendered at Wurgaum, but in reality for his assistance in bringing about the pacification, which at that period, on account of Hyder's invasion of the Carnatic, was most urgently wanted In 1772 Broach was besieged by an army from Bombay, commanded by Gen. Wedderburne (Lord Loughborough's brother), who was killed under the walls, but a few days after the general's death, although then a place of considerable strength, it was taken by storm. After the death of Madhajee Sindia, it devolved to his nephew and successor, Dowlet Row Sindia, from whom it was taken in 1803, and has ever since remained with the British government Travelling distance from Bombay, 221 miles; from Oojein, 266; and from Poona, 287 miles.—(*Drummond, Wilford, Moore, Rennell, Romer, &c.*)

Brooang Pass (*or Burendo*).—A pass through the Himalaya mountains, near the course of the Sutuleje, 15,095 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 23′ N., lon. 78° 12′ E. The country in this neighbourhood is extremely rugged, and the population thinly scattered, in villages situated at a great distance from each other; they are, however, in general large, and the houses (built of stone and wood, and sometimes slated) spacious. The people are described as

dark in their complexions and dirty in their habits, but their temples are said to be of a superior description. —(*Lieut. Gerard, &c.*)

BUBOORARA.—A village in the province of Sinde, situated on the road from Hyderabad to Luckputbunder, about twenty-four miles to the north of the latter; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 69° 2′ E. This place stands on the edge of the Runn, and during the dry season is abandoned by the inhabitants. —(*Maxfield, &c.*)

BUBROOA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Jeypoor Raja, fifteen miles distant from his capital. In 1820 it was said to contain 2,000 houses.

BUCCLESORE.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birbhoom, seven miles from the ruins of the ancient city of Nagore. At this place is the most copious hot springs met with in this quarter of the Vindhyan range, its waters forming a running stream of considerable size; it is also the hottest, as in January 1819 it raised a thermometer, immersed, to 152° Fahrenheit. The water exhales a strong sulphureous smell, and reservoirs have been built to receive them. A street of above 100 diminutive pagodas has been raised along the margin, with the usual picturesque accompaniment of venerable burgot trees, and a host of officiating Brahmins.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BUCHONE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles W. by S. from Callinjer; lat. 25° 2′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

BUCKAR (*or Bhukkur*).—A small town in the province of Lahore, frequently the residence of the hakim, or governor of the Leia district, situated within a few miles of the Indus; lat. 31° 38′ N., lon. 70° 40′ E.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

BUCKATGHUR (*or Wuckutghur*).—A town and small fort in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda; lat. 22° 15′ N., lon. 76° 21′ E.

BUCKRAH.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, thirty-two miles north from Patna; lat. 26° 4′ N., long. 85° 10′ E.

BUCKRAH.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, situated on the banks of the Buckrah jeel, or Lackshmisar lake, the theme of a popular and indecent Hindostany song; twenty-three miles north-west from Goruckpoor; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 85° 10′ E.

BUDANGHUR.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, twenty-six miles N. by W. from Almora, lat. 30° N., lon. 79° 31′ E., 8,242 feet above the level of the sea.

BUDAYOON (*Budavan*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty-nine miles south-west from Bareily, lat. 28° 4′ N., lon. 78° 58′ E. It was first conquered by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1203, when it was in a flourishing condition, and it is mentioned by Abul Fazel in the institutes of Acber, as a place of celebrity; but its importance has long ceased, and it is remarkable only for its antiquity.

BUDDHA GAYA.—Remarkable ruins in the province and district of Bahar, situated a few hundred yards west of the Nilajan river, in a plain of great extent, about five miles from Gaya Proper. They now consist of confused heaps of brick and stone, which exhibit some traces of having been once regularly arranged; but immense quantities of the materials have been removed, and the remainder are almost shapeless. The building here called the temple of Buddha is a lofty brick edifice, resembling at a distance a huge glass-house, and now so honeycombed with age, as to excite surprise that it continues erect. Buddha Gaya was probably at one time the centre of a religion, and capital of a powerful king; but the sect of Buddha in this neighbourhood may be considered as completely extinct, yet a few persons come occasionally from distant countries to visit its monuments. The most remarkable modern edifice is a convent of Sanyassies.

On the terrace behind the temple a peepul tree is growing which the orthodox suppose to have been planted by Brahma, the Buddhists, on the contrary, assert that it was planted by Dugdha Kamini, king of Singhal Dwipa, 414 years before the birth of our Saviour, and 125 before the building of the temple, and that it is placed exactly in the centre of the earth. The tree in 1812 was in full vigour, and appeared to be about 100 years of age, but a similar one may have existed in the same place when the temple was entire, a circular elevation of brick has been raised round its root, in various concentric circles, and on one end of these has been placed a confused heap of images and carved fragments of stone, taken from the ruins Indeed the number of images scattered about this place, for fifteen or twenty miles, in all directions, is almost incredible, yet they all appear to have originally belonged to the great temple or its vicinity, which seems to have been the grand quarry for the whole, and carried from thence to different places. Many of these images are now worshipped by the Brahminical Hindoos, and many of the attributes of their gods have apparently the same origin; but this people, with all their religious zeal, are most unaccountably careless in many respects, worshipping males under female names, and unequivocal images of Buddha, as an orthodox deity. Besides inscriptions establishing the Buddhist origin of many of these images, they may be distinguished by the enormous size and distension of their ears, and also by a mark on the palm of the hand and soles of the feet, which is supposed to resemble the lotus flower.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c*)

Buddegaum (*Buddhagrama*)—A town in the province of Agra, district of Narwar, with a stone ghurry. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 1,000 houses.

Buddoo (*Buddha*).—A village in the Lahore province, formerly tributary to the Raja of Jamboe, sixty-one miles N. by E. from Amritsir; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 75° E. An annual fair is held here on the 5th April.

Buddruck (*Vadarica*).—A town in the province of Orissa, situated on the north bank of the Cewah or Solundee river, which at one season of the year is fordable here, and at another 300 yards broad; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 86° 26′ E., thirty-eight miles S.S.W. from Balasore. From this part of Orissa come most of the people termed in Calcutta Balasore bearers.—(*1st Register, &c*)

Budgebudge (*Bhujabhuj*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly, ten miles below Calcutta in a straight line, but almost double that number following the windings of the river; lat. 22° 29′ N., lon. 88° 20′ E

During the reign of Seraje ud Dowlah, the last independent nabob of Bengal, this station had a separate fortress, which on the 29th of December 1756 was besieged in form, and a breach effected, by the forces under Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, who intended a general assault before day break. During the night, however, it was most informally stormed by a sailor named Strahan, who happening to get drunk, wandered up to the breach and fired a pistol at some of the garrison, who not doubting but he was followed by the whole army, fled out by the opposite side, and left him in possession of the place. This little fort is still in existence, and may be traced, but with difficulty, its area being so choked up with grass jungle as to be scarcely accessible. A more exotic and useful structure at Budgebudge in 1820 was a good English tavern, the only one on the banks of the Hooghly except at Calcutta.—(*Ives, Fullarton, &c.*)

Budgeroons.—Three small islets in the Eastern seas in the straits of Salayr, off the southern extremity of Celebes. The passage is between the southernmost and central one, and is about a mile broad.

Budhan Dhoora.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles S.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.; 8,502 feet above the level of the sea.

Budnawur.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirty-one miles north from Dhar, which in 1820 contained 734 houses. Lat. 23° 2′ N., lon. 76° 17′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah of the same name which at the above date comprehended 150 villages, and a population of 31,119 persons. Of these villages twenty-two belonged to the Dhar principality; the rest to twelve Rajpoot families tributary to that chief, but each independent within his own limits. The town of Budnawar is surrounded by a mud wall in bad repair, and there is also a fort where the Mundlovce resides. In 1820 the town and district afforded a revenue of 92,271 rupees, which was on the rise, as the villages were flourishing and population increasing. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Budnapoor.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-six miles E of the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 54′ N, lon. 75° 57′ E.

Budra River (*bhadra, excellent*). —This river has its source in a hilly district of the Mysore province, not far from the frontiers of Coorg, from whence it flows in a northerly direction until it joins the Tunga river; their junction forming the Tungabhadra or Toombudra river.

Bugano—An island about fifty miles in circumference, lying off the south-eastern coast of Sumatra; lat 5° 20′ S., lon. 102° 25′ E. There is no fresh water to be had on the east side of this island.

Buggesses.—See Bony and Celebes.

Buggroo.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, eighteen miles S.W. from Jeypoor; lat. 26° 50′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E. This place is surrounded by groves of the tara palm, a rare sight in these inhospitable plains; yet the soil does not appear radically bad, and water is found not far from the surface.

Bughat.—A petty lordship (one of twelve) in Northern Hindostan, situated in the tract between the Sutuleje and Jumna; bounded on the west by the Pinjore valley, and to the east and south by Sirmore. It contains the forts of Rajghur, Ajmanghur, Tuxal, Lukchaynpoor, and Thuroo. Mahindra Singh, who reigned in 1817, prior to the British conquest, paid the Gorkhas a tribute of 2,000 rupees per annum; but having by his conduct during the war forfeited all claim for the restitution of his territories, a certain portion was retained to compensate for the expense incurred.—(*Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Bugwah.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

Bugwara—A town in the province of Candeish, eighty-seven miles west from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 74° 56′ E. In 1816 it belonged to Holcar, and contained 300 houses.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Buitenzorg.—A district in the island of Java, which, according to a census taken by the British government in 1815, contained 76,312 persons, of which number 2,633 were Chinese. It then occupied an area of 2,411 square miles. The village of Buitenzorg, the country residence of the governor of Java, stands in lat. 6° 39′ S, lon. 106° 50′ E., thirty-six miles travelling distance south from Batavia. Being placed at the base of the blue mountains, the air here is cool and healthy, but invalids suffer from the profusion of rain which falls here almost every evening—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

Bujana.—A town in the province of Gujerat, division of Jutwar, situated on the banks of the Runn, which here in the month of December is in many places merely moist sand, and in others an extensive sheet of shallow water; lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 71° 50′ E.

Buldeah.—A town in the province of Malwa, surrounded by a mud

wall, and containing a ghurry or native fortification, ten miles N.N.W. from Turrote.

Bulindsheer *(the lofty city)*.—A town in the Delhi province, forty-one miles S.E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 25′ N., lon. 77° 43′ E.

Bulluah.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, forty-two miles S.E. from the town of Goruckpoor, lat. 26° 45′ N., lon. 83° 13′ E.

Bullum.—A small district in Mysore, situated about lat 13° N above the western ghauts, partly comprehended in the British jurisdiction of Canara, and partly within the territories of the Mysore Raja. The external appearance of the three divisions of Bullum, Coorg, and Bednore nearly resemble each other, being all composed of high hills and deep vallies. The mountains are mostly bare, but the ravines are covered with jungle, and in many places by primeval forests, inhabited by a great variety of wild animals. In fact, although nominally under subjection to the former sovereigns of Mysore, it never was effectually conquered until military roads were made through it by the Duke of Wellington, in 1801-2. The duration of the rains, which commence about the middle of May and continue until November, give rise to a multitude of rivers, which flow in various directions the whole year. The waters that descend from these elevated regions to the westward, proceed to the Indian ocean through the provinces of Malabar and Canara. Bullum contains no town, or even village of any consequence.

Bullumghur.—A town and fortress in the province of Delhi, twenty-one miles south from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 23′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. The fort has high brick walls, strengthened with a deep ditch and high mud bastions. Within is a small crowded, but tolerable well-built town, with narrow streets, tall houses, and many temples. The raja has a neat palace built round a small court, with a marble fountain in the centre. The Bullumghur chief holds a considerable territory as feudatory to the British government, on condition of maintaining a body of troops to assist the police, and repress all incursions of the Mewatties and other predatory tribes. The family and most of the people are Jauts. In 1819 the late Raja of Bullumghur died, leaving an infant son; in consequence of which the management of this small principality was entrusted by the British government to Raja Kooar Singh, the great uncle of the deceased Raja.

Bulrampour.—A town in the province of Oude, forty-two miles N. from Fyzabad, lat. 27° 24′ N., lon. 82° 4′ E.

Bulsaur.—A large and populous seaport on the high road to Bombay, forty-five miles S by W. from Surat; lat 20° 36′ N., lon 73° 5′ E. A considerable trade is carried on in grain, jaggry, and timber. The manufactures consist mostly of coarse doties, baftaes, and ginghams. The principal produce of the pergunnah is rice and sugar-cane; but there is still a large proportion of waste and unoccupied land.—(*Morrison, &c.*)

Bulsun.—A petty chiefship in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, on the left bank of the Girree river, whence it extends eastward to the frontiers of Joobul, by which it is also bounded to the south; to the north it joins Koteghur. Lat. 31° 5′ N., lon 77° 28′ E., forty-two miles N. by E. from Nahan.

Bulteira Ghaut.—A ghaut on the Nerbudda river, province of Malwa, fordable in March. The river here is wide but shallow, and on its south bank stands the small village of Bulteira. In this neighbourhood there are many other fords formerly well known to the Pindaries.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bulu China *(named from a species of bamboo)*.—A small native state

on the east coast of Sumatra, subordinate to Delli, situated on a river of the same name, flowing almost parallel with the Delli river. In 1823 this village contained only eighty houses, but there were many others scattered along the river banks, of which Soonghal was the largest and most commercial. Further inland the Battas and the Karankaran tribes are numerous, and industrious cultivators. The exports are pepper (raised by the Battas), gambir, tobacco, and slaves; the imports are small quantities of every thing, but more especially opium and cotton goods. A traffic is also carried on quite across Sumatra to Sinkel, on the opposite shore. The country is naturally rich and productive, but, except on the banks of the rivers, scantily populated. A Malay here is reckoned rich who possesses 2,000 dollars.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

Bunahfe.—A good-sized town in the province of Ajmeer, situated at the foot of a range of hills nineteen miles south from Nusseerabad; lat. 26° 8′N., lon. 74° 38′E. On an adjoining rock is a little old castle, with some trees round its base, which are very ornamental in this parched country.

Bunaisor (*Vanswara*).—A decayed town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, situated some miles west of the great Juggernauth road, and about eighteen miles S. by W. from the town of Cuttack. The temple of Mahadeva (or Siva) at this place is said to surpass in dimensions the pagoda at Juggernauth, and numerous other temples and ruins of an ancient city are dispersed throughout the neighbouring jungles.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bunchang.—A town in the interior of Siam, situated on the Meklong river, which flows south into the Menam, and in 1826 contained about 4,000 inhabitants, mostly Chinese. It is supposed to be the Banxang of the Lettres édifiantes.

Bunchiom.—A considerable town in the interior of Siam, above Bankok, situated at the junction of the Meklong with the Sissovat river, which here comes from the north. In 1826 it contained about 5,000 inhabitants.—(*Leal, &c.*)

Bunchoola.—A ruined native fort in Northern Hindostan, twenty-three miles north of Almora; lat. 29° 53′ N., lon. 79° 6′E., and 4,083 feet above the level of the sea.

Bundara.—A town in the province of Gundwana, dominions of Nagpoor, situated on the Wyne Gunga river, 872 feet above the level of the sea.

Bundlecund (*the country of the Bundelas*).—A large division of the Allahabad province, situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. On the north it has the river Jumna; on the south parts of Berar and Malwa; on the east Baghelcund; and on the west Sindia's territories. It extends from 77° 48′ to 81° 33′ E., and from 24° 3′ to 26° 26′ N., and contains altogether 23,817 miles, with a population of 2,400,000 persons.

The mountains of this tract extend in continuous ranges parallel to each other, each successively buttressing a table-land, one above the other, and here designated by the name of ghauts. The first of these ranges is called the Bindhyachal (or Vindhya) mountains, which commence at Kesoghur, and make a circuitous sweep until they approach the Ganges at Surajghur and Rajamahal. The plains of Bundlecund resemble a vast bay of the ocean, formed by natural barriers and crowned with fortresses. The progressive elevation from the Jumna is towards the apex of the bay, but the highest summit does not exceed 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. The second range, called the Panna ghauts, runs parallel to the Vindhyachal, preserving a distance of about ten miles; the third, named the Bandair, is the most elevated portion of the province.

The principal rivers are the Ken, Desan, and Betwa. Large artificial

reservoirs, such as the lakes of Burwa Saugor, Arjal, Birsangur, Nandanwar, Bomori, Jhatara, Gurrah, and Bhind. These are immense piles of masonry, in some instances constructed to stop the current of a stream, in order to raise it to a higher level and force it to expand for the purposes of irrigation. There are not any forests in this district, the most valuable productions of the hills (besides diamonds) being bamboos, iron, drugs, gums, the chironja nut, and catechu or terra japonica. The diamond mines are situated in the table-land near Panna, and are the exclusive property of the Panna Raja; but no gems of superior quality have been discovered for many years past. A coarse cotton cloth dyed red is the principal manufacture; at Calpee sugar-candy and paper, and at Jhansi a carpet manufactory. A coarse kind of sacking is woven along the banks of the Betwa, and at Chatterpoor, which supplies wrappers for the merchandize passing from the Deccan.

The soil of Bundlecund exhibits every variety, from the rich black loam to the sterile conkar. The valleys and low lands are generally of the first, and when properly watered, produce in abundance almost every grain and plant of Hindostan In the more barren tracts millet, panic, and paspelum are grown; but even these inferior sorts, in times of scarcity, are not attainable by the poorer classes, with whom the fruit of the bassia latifolia, sometimes mixed with the deleterious bark of the katbal tree, is the wretched, and almost poisonous substitute. In 1815, according to the returns made to the Marquis of Hastings, the district of Bundlecund contained 21,18,991 small begas in cultivation, which yielded a revenue of 29,01,510 rupees, or about one rupee six annas per bega. There were also 8,94,387 begas fit for cultivation.

There are not any remarkable buildings now extant, but some remarkable ruins, such as those at Mahoba; Cajram, near Rajanagur; at Malhan above the hills, near Jodhpoor; and at Sirswaghur, near Sal on the Pohawaj. Among the nat curiosities may be reckoned the s terraneous cavern near Chittraco another in the hills near Bijaw the cataract of Bedhak, near Caly ghur; and of the rivers, Paisuni, B gi, and Ranj rivers; but the obj most deserving of notice are certai the hill forts of Callinjer and A ghur.

The principal Hindoo religious tablishment is at Chittracote, on Paisuni river, and there are Jain t ples at Senawal and Kandalpo but the most singular is at Pan founded by an enthusiast named . Sauheb, who declared himself to the Imaum Mehedi mentioned the koran, to which Jee Sauhe book, named the Kulzam, is inten to be a sort of appendix. His f lowers, named also Dhamians, to be found in the Punjab, in Gujer Delhi, Lucknow, Benares, Mathu Fyzabad, Nagpoor, and Hyderab but Panna is their Mecca. The pe liar dialect called Bundlecundy spoken in a tract lying due west Allahabad, and along the banks the Jumna from Meuo to Calp It is a Sanscrit derivative, and me the Malwa on the west, the Bruj the north, and the Maharatta on south.

The principal towns of Bund cund are Banda, the head-quarters the magistrate, Callinjer, Tea Jyhtpoor, Chatterpoor, Jhansi, D teen, and Bejaour. The British p sessions extend along the line of river Jumna, from the Allahabad c trict to that of Etaweh, and from Jumna southward to the frontier the native states. They cont 4,685 square miles, including the p gunnah of Koonch, and have a p pulation of about 700,000 inha tants. The states of the native chi or rajas of Bundlecund occupy t remainder of the space, under d ferent chiefs, protected by the Brit government. These small prin palities are numerous, and some them extensive. For the convenien of fiscal and political arrangeme

the whole province has been recently divided into two districts, named north and south Bundlecund. The British government, in their treaties, took care never to relinquish the right of interference for the correction of acts of gross and flagrant violence and oppression committed by any of the dependent Bundelah chiefs, even against their own subjects, such a right necessarily flowing from the relations subsisting between the parties, and cannot be renounced without depriving the British government of one of the most powerful means of rendering its paramount authority conducive to the welfare and tranquillity of the country: to be exercised, however, with extreme forbearance and circumspection.—(*Captain T. Franklin, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BUNDERMALANCA (*Bander maha Lanca*).—A town in the Northern Circars, fifty-four miles E.N.E. from Masulipatam. Lat. 16° 26′ N., lon. 81° 59′ E.

BUNDERPOOCH (*A monkey's tail*) —The third peak of the Jumnowtri or Bunderpooch mountain, in the Himalaya, marked black E. in Capt. Hodson and Lieut. Herbert's survey, is thus named by the natives. It stands in lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E., and is a conspicuous object viewed from Saharunpoor. Elevation above the level of the sea 21,155 feet. The name of Bunderpooch applies only to the highest peak, all the subordinate peaks and ridges having peculiar names.—(*Hodson, Herbert, &c.*)

BUNGHUR.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Sumbhulpoor, seventy-two miles N.W. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1818, it was assessed in money by Major Roughsedge at 1,500 Sumbhulpoor rupees.

BUNHUTGHAUT —A pass in the province of Malwa through a chain of jungly hills lying in a north-west direction from Ratghur. Lat. 23° 26′ N.

BUNJAREE GHAUT —A pass among the hills in the province of Gundwana, 115 miles S.W. from Ruttunpoor. Lat. 21° 8′ N., lon. 81° 7′ E. This spot is of such an elevation that it causes the rivers to take opposite courses.—(*Leckie, &c.*)

BUNKORA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, principality of Doongerpoor, about seventeen miles E. by S. from that town. In 1821 it belonged to a Rajpoot chieftain named Pertaub Singh.

BUNKOULEE.—In 1815 a large and apparently populous village in northern Hindostan, sixty-six miles N.W. from Serinagur. Lat. 30° 49′ N., lon. 78′ E.—(*Jas. Frazer, &c.*)

BUNNEE (*Bhuni*).—A section of the Runn thus named, extending along the northern boundary of Cutch and skirting the desert, which in some places is seven miles broad. This space is never cultivated, being reserved for the grazing of cattle on account of its excellent pasturage. The Bunnee is the receptacle of the water accumulated by the monsoon torrents, and by the stream of the Luckput river, after the subsidence of which it becomes an extensive and luxuriant meadow. In ancient times the river Indus is said to have flowed into this space, where it formed the lake of Narrain Sir, now a small fountain worshipped by the Hindoos.

BUNRAREE TEMPLE.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, ten miles S.E. from Serinagur. Lat. 30° 9′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.; 6,950 feet above the level of the sea.

BUNTWALLA.—A town in the province of Canara, fifteen miles E. from Mangalore. Lat. 12° 54′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

BUNWOOT.—An island about eighteen miles in circumference, lying off Pollok harbour, in Magindanao; lat. 7° 14′ N., lon. 124° 28′ E. On the 12th of September 1775, this island was ceded to Capt. Thomas Forrest, by the sultan and government of Magindanao, the grant being written in

Spanish by a native of Pampanga, once a slave, but who obtained his liberty by turning Mahomedan. Bunwoot is covered with tall trees, clear of underwood, and at the date of the grant was uninhabited. There are few springs, but many ponds of fresh rain water, and the interior abounds with wild hogs, monkeys, guanas and small snakes about eighteen inches long In this state it probably remains, as it never was taken possession of.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Buragong.—A small town in the province of Agra, fifteen miles S by E. from Jaloun. Lat. 25° 58′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.

Burdaiwud.—A small town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Ghuffoor Khan, which in 1820 contained 400 houses, nine miles and a half N.N.W. from Khachrode.

Burdee.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the south bank of the Sone river, here a very diminutive stream, thirty-eight miles S from the city of Mirzapoor Lat 24° 36′ N., lon. 82° 27′ E The Burdee fort is of stone, and stands on a high abrupt hill washed by the Goput. There is another small fort not far off, named Bhoparee. The Burdee Raja's territories are much intermixed with those of the British government, and in some parts are tolerably well cultivated, but in the vicinity of the chief town the surrounding country has a most desolate aspect.—(*J B. Blunt, &c*)

Burdwan (*Varhdaman, productive*)—A district in the province of Bengal, situated between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Birboom and Rajeshahy; on the south by Midnapoor and Hooghly; and on the west by Midnapoor and Ramghur. In 1784 this district contained 5,174 square miles, according to Major Rennell's mensuration; but it has since undergone various modifications, which have so greatly reduced its dimensions, that in 1814 Mr. Bailey computed its area at only 2,400 square miles.

Along with the other ceded lands it became subject to the British government so early as 1760, since which it has thriven so prosperously, that, in proportion to its extent, it may safely be considered as the most productive and populous territory of India It is environed by the jungles of Midnapoor, Pachete, and Birboom, appearing like a garden surrounded by a wilderness. The most valuable articles are · sugar, indigo, pawn, cotton, tobacco, and mulberry trees, all of which have progressively increased in quantity. Many of the principal zemindars reside in Calcutta, and have their estates managed by agents There are a considerable number of native merchants, who deal in tobacco, salt, grain, and cloth, and commerce has been greatly facilitated by the opening of three grand roads from the interior, Burdwan, although so opulent, not having the advantage of inland navigation, like most of the adjoining districts.

The original zemindary or estate, known by the name of Burdwan, came to the present family about A D 1722, and in 1790 paid a yearly rent to government of £400,000, but at present no property of any magnitude belongs to the raja, except the zemindary, greatly curtailed, and scarcely yielding him more than five per cent. on the land tax. The other chief, the Raja of Bissunpoor, has nothing left but his title, a great proportion of his estate having been sold for arrears of revenue, and the rest usually continuing under attachment from the same cause. There are few villages here in which there is not a school where children are taught to read and write, but there are no regular schools for instruction in the Hindoo or Mahomedan law. The most learned professors of the first are procured from the district of Nuddea, on the opposite side of the Hooghly, from whence and from Benares the other stations are also supplied. The Mahomedans bear a considerable proportion to the mass of

the inhabitants, and receive their education in the common branches from the village schoolmasters.

In 1814 Mr. Bayley, then judge and magistrate of Burdwan, endeavoured to ascertain, with an approach to accuracy, the exact number of inhabitants within his jurisdiction. In prosecution of this undertaking, the proprietors of every village were furnished, through the police officers of each division, with a form in the Bengalese language, in which to insert the total number of dwelling houses in each village, and the proportion respectively occupied by Mahomedans and Hindoos These papers were accordingly circulated, and after being thus prepared, were attested by the proprietor or his agent, and also by some of the most respectable village occupants, no reluctance to communicating information appearing on the part of any of these individuals The result of these statements, when collected and examined, tended to establish the following facts, *viz.* that in 1814 the Burdwan district contained 262,634 dwelling-houses, of which 218,153 were occupied by Hindoos, and 43,781 by Mahomedans; and allowing five persons and a half to each house, that the total population of Burdwan amounted to 1,444,487 persons.

In 1814 the area of the Burdwan district, as it then existed, comprehended 2,400 English square miles, giving an average of 600 persons per square mile. The total population of England in 1811 gave an average of nearly 200 inhabitants to the square mile, but on examining the county of Lancaster exclusively, with an area of 1,800 square miles, it then contained 856,000 inhabitants, or 476 to the square mile; and in the census of 1821 the proportion was above 500 persons.—(*W. B. Bayley, J. Grant, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Burdwan.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district, and head-quarters of the government establishment; sixty miles N.N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 87° 57′ E. In 1814, when its circumstances were investigated by Mr. Bayley, 7,651 houses were found inhabited by Hindoos, and 2,154 by Mahomedans, total 9,805; which, at the rate of five and a half persons to each dwelling, gave a total population of 53,927 persons. The Burdwan raja has a palace (a vast heavy pile of buildings) here, where he usually resides, and also spacious gardens, laid out after the native fashion; but with a sort of summer-house fitted up after the English manner by the side of a magnificent tank.—(*W. B. Bayley. Fullarton, &c*)

Burgundah.—A town in the Hyderabad province, ninety-seven miles N from Ellore; lat. 18° 5′ N. lon. 81° 4′ E

Burias.—One of the Philippine Isles, lying due south of Luzon; lat. 13° N, lon. 123° E. In extreme length it may be estimated at forty-three miles, but the average breadth does not exceed nine. Although this island is situated in the very centre of the Philippines, and so near the great island of Luzon, and its capital Manilla, yet, in 1775 it was possessed by a colony of piratical Illanois cruizers from Magindanao, the Spaniards not having been able to dislodge them Burias is surrounded with rocks and shoals to a considerable distance.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Burnuggur —A town in the province of Gujerat, fifty-eight miles N. from Ahmedabad, lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 72° 39′ E

Burode —A small town surrounded by a strong wall, and possessing a stone ghurry, in the province of Malwa, and pergunnah of Gungrar; lat 23° 17′ N., lon 75° 52′ E In 1820 this place contained 300 houses, and belonged to Zalim Singh of Kotah —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Burpureer —A town in the province of Ajmeer, which in 1820 contained 400 houses; five miles N. by E. from Neemutch.

Burrampoor.—A town of consi-

derable extent, population, and commerce in the Northern Circars, district of Ganjam, twenty-one miles travelling distance S.W. from the town of Ganjam. The bazar is about three quarters of a mile in length, composed of good tiled shops; and there is besides an excellent street entirely occupied by weavers, and distinguished by the red colour of their huts. The architecture of the Hindoo temples here (of which there are several) is peculiar, each temple being composed of a group of low buildings, in some instances detached, in others joined; but each with a sort of graduated pyramidical roof, terminating in an ornamented conical cupola. Juggernauth is the incarnation worshipped. When it became necessary to remove the government establishment from Ganjam, in consequence of its extreme unhealthiness they were transferred to this place, and cantonments erected on a high spot in the vicinity. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Burrishol.—A town in the province of Bengal, the modern capital of the Backergunge district, seventy-two miles S. from Dacca; lat. 22° 46′ N., lon. 90° 17′ E. It stands on the point of an oblong island, formed by the broad branches of the great Ganges, which here presents an immense expanse of water, and a wonderful facility of inland navigation.

Burrounda.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles S from Banda; lat. 25° 3′ N, lon. 80° 37′ E.

Bursеah.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-four miles N from Bopaul; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E. This is the cusba or head of a pergunnah of the same name, nearly thirty miles in length and twenty in breadth; and in 1820 contained 315 villages, yielding the proprietor, the Raja of Dhar, a revenue of 77,445 rupees. The Salunkee Rajpoots occupy a tract in Burseah, extending along the right bank of the Parbutty; but the villages were in ruins, and the land covered with jungle. In 1817 this place was the principal cantonment of Kurreem Khan, the Pindarry; in 1820 it was subject to the Raja of Dhar, but farmed to Bopaul, and contained 3,000 houses; but the surrounding country was thinly inhabited.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Burtapoor (*Bharatpura*). — A town in the province of Oude, 100 miles N. by E. from Lucknow; lat. 28° 15′ N., lon. 80° 53′ E.

Burudda (*or Jaitwar*).—A district extending along the south-western coast of the Gujerat peninsula, and situated principally between the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude. The country, which is still known by the name of Burudda, and which composes the present territory of the Rana of Poorbunder, is bounded on the north by the Serteeannee river, which falls into the Meeannee by Hallaur. On the east it has the Burudda hills, and on the west the sea. At present the chief towns are Poorbunder, Navyee, Bunder, and Meeannee, and there still exist the ruins of a town named Ghoomty, the debris of which continue to attract the devotion and excite the curiosity of the Hindoos. The surface of the country is in general flat, the soil light earth mixed with rock, and not very rich. The want of wood, so common throughout the Gujerat peninsula, is equally felt here, and the water is in many places brackish. By the conditions of Colonel Walker's arrangement in 1807, the chieftains of Poorbunder or Burudda were bound to pay the Guicowar an annual tribute of 30,000 rupees, which is quite as much as the district could afford.—(*Walker, Public MS Documents, &c*)

Burwa.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, about thirty-nine miles travelling distance N. by E. from the city of Cuttack. A mile and a half to the south-west of this place there is a fine Mogul bridge of three arches, ornamented with four open square towers or pavilions, thrown across a small stream named the Narussua. On the other side of the village, distant about a

mile, is the ferry of the Kursora, a considerable river, crossed in decked boats.—(*Fullarton, &c*)

Burwah.—A town and zemindary in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 240 miles W.N.W. from Calcutta. The town in the vicinity is usually named Hazary Baugh, and is the head-quarters of the Ramghur provincial corps of sepoys. In 1801 the territories of Hurry Ram Sahy were overrun and conquered by the neighbouring Raja of Sirgooja, and not being supported by his immediate superior, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor, he was obliged to submit to the invader, whose troops kept possession several years, but retreated on learning the approach of a British detachment under Colonel Jones. Conceiving this to be a favourable opportunity, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor determined to attempt its reconquest, but he stood not the least chance of success, had not the British commander and the magistrate of Ramghur advised the Burwah chief to submit on the assurance of personal safety. He was in consequence induced to trust himself in the hands of the raja's officers, who two days afterwards sent him under escort to Palcote, within a mile of which place he was taken out of his palanqueen, and put to death in cold blood by the party guarding, who had been selected for this atrocious purpose. On this occasion no judicial inquiry was instituted, nor did it come to the knowledge of the Bengal government until 1807, so imperfectly was this portion of our Eastern dominions subdued, or even explored —(*Roughsedge, &c*)

Burwannee.—A large town in the province of Candeish, the residence of Raja Mohun Singh; lat. 22° 4′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E. It is surrounded with a double wall, having a ditch to the outer one, and enclosing a ghurry and palace, the latter six stories high; but the place generally is in a ruinous condition. The Burwannee district extends along the south bank of the Nerbudda, and may be roughly estimated at sixty-five miles in length by forty-five in breadth, a great proportion of which is covered with jungle, and in a complete state of desolation; but of this space the Satpoorah range of hills occupy a considerable extent. The table-land of this elevated tract, interspersed with many pleasant vallleys, comprehends the divisions of Borut and Nervallee, which formerly contained eighty-two flourishing towns and villages; but of these, in 1820, only the vestiges remained, and the gross revenue of this large district amounted to only 16,039 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c*)

Bussaher (*Baschai*)—A principality in northern Hindostan, occupying a tract of mountainous land, bounded on two sides by the Sutuleje and Jumna, and extending eastward until it meets the district of Roween, and north, including Kunawur, beyond the snowy mountains of Himalaya. It is named also Bishur, Besseer, Biser, and Besariya, and in 1815 contained the following subdivisions. 1st Kunawur; 2d the tract that includes Rampoor (the capital), and Seran, which stretches along the valley of the Sutuleje, with the smaller glens and ravines that drain into it, 3d. the valley of the Pabur, with all the territory on its left bank, including Sambracote, Nawur, Teekur, and many other smaller vallies. Dasau is also one of the great divisions of Bussaher, to which state likewise the Tartar pergunnah of Hangarang belongs.

The division that includes the glen of the Pabur river is by far the most productive in the Bussaher territories; but the upper part of that glen, and of some others that converge into it on the north, is generally barren and savage, but for a distance of fifteen or twenty miles above Raeengudh, the Pabur runs comparatively through a level valley, containing much corn land, as does also the valley of Sambracote. The Nawur and Teekur are next in fertility, and also contain iron ore, which is worked and ex-

ported to the Seik countries. The tract named Chohera, or Swara, consists of paddy or low rice-lands, already cultivated to the utmost, and some ridges of invincible sterility. Besides the districts above-named, the Bussaher Raja exercises a sort of feudal superiority over several of the adjacent petty states, who purchase protection or forbearance with an annual tribute

The staple commodities of Bussaher, are sheep, wool, cattle, ghee, and iron, some grain, tobacco, opium, and musk The fruits are apples, bad pears, apricots, peaches, wild grapes, currants, and the eatable seeds of the pine cone From the grapes they procure a sort of strong liquor, much used by those who can afford to purchase it Their woollen cloths are of an excellent fabric, their wool being of a superior quality, besides much imported from Tibet. With these materials they weave blankets of different sizes and fineness, cloth for trowsers, fine webs for waistbands and plaids, a sort of well-napped cloth named Seik cloth, and for the black bonnets which the natives wear as a covering for the head They also manufacture a small quantity of shawl wool, occasionally mixed with that of the sheep The trade of Bussaher, owing to its geographical position, has always been considerable, being an entrepôt between Hindostan and Tibet: from the first, sugar, cotton, cloths, small quantities of iron and brass ware, and indigo; the returns are iron, blankets, opium, a little tobacco, bang, and turmeric The exports to Tibet and the Chinese territories, are grain to the more barren tracts, ghee, iron, opium, tobacco and wooden cups for tea; besides being the thoroughfare for all the commodities from the plains, such as sugar, sugar-candy, cotton cloths of various degrees of fineness, and indigo. The returns from the north are almost entirely wool, both shawl and the common sort, salt, a little tea, Chinese silks, musk, and borax. Prior to 1815, during the Gorkha sway, a great proportion of the traffic with Tibet and Chinese Tartary passed through the Lahore province, the best roads being then through Chamba and Jellamookhee to Amritsir, and the next through Cooloo, by its capital Stanpoor.

This principality was subdued about 1810 by the Gorkhas under Ummer Singh Thappa, and remained subject to that nation until 1814, when it was freed by the efforts of the British arms, without any active co-operation on the part of the government or its inhabitants, in consequence of which a tribute of 1,500 rupees per annum was imposed. In 1816 its total revenue was estimated at 80,000 rupees per annum Of the population no rational estimate can be formed, but it is known to be scanty, and the climate for a considerable portion of the year in many tracts precludes cultivation.

Ooghur Singh, the late Raja of Bussaher, was only twelve days old at the death of his father and predecessor Rooder Singh. During his long minority the affairs of government were conducted by the Ranny mother, assisted by three viziers (whose functions are hereditary), the principal distinguished by the title of Mokhtar. In 1816, the reigning raja being a minor, the principality was governed by a regency established under the authority of the British government. which, however, did not interfere with the internal administration of the country —(*James Fraser, Lieut Ross, Sir D Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BUSSEAH —A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 210 miles W N.W. from Calcutta, lat. 22° 58′ N., lon 85° 11′ E.

BUSSEE —A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, about eighteen miles S.W. from the city of Jeypoor. This town presents a striking and picturesque appearance to the traveller, owing to its white pagodas within, and old stone pavilions without.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BUSSEE.—A town in the province of Delhi, four miles north from Sirhind; lat. 30° 37′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Bustar *(or Wasalairce)*.—A town and district in the province of Gundwana, 170 miles from Ganjam; lat. 19° 31′ N., lon 82° 28′ E. This savage tract has as yet been very imperfectly investigated, its difficult access and unhealthy climate presenting no attractions to travellers, while its poverty holds out no temptation to fiscal or military rapacity. The mountains of Bustar and Kuronde are branches of the great range that runs north and south parallel to the bay of Bengal, in the rear of Cuttack and the northern Circars. The Inderowty is the principal river of Bustar. Teak abounds in this territory, and is of sufficient size for the construction of such vessels as navigate the Coromandel coast. The river Inderowty affords facilities for floating it down from the interior to particular points, where it might be formed into rafts, and conveyed down the Godavery to Coringa. Jungly hills and pestilential morasses compose nine-tenths of the country, and the remainder is but little cultivated by the wild Gonds, who are described as living in a state of nature on the natural productions of the earth, and water, and the chase. Some of the inhabitants, however, must have attained a higher stage of civilization, as it appears that in 1812 the Nagpoor government, which claims superiority by right of conquest, attempted to levy 25,000 rupees from Maha Pal Deo, zemindar of Bustar, a portion of which they actually succeeded in extorting through the medium of Ramchunder Wag, the Nagpoor commander.

Prior to this, disputes subsisted between the Jyepoor proprietor and the Bustar chief, which led to mutual depredations. The first accused his antagonist of having seized the large estates of Ryagudda, Ameracotta, and Peddagudda; but the loss in a pecuniary view does not appear to have been a heavy one, the revenue of the whole amounting to only 150 rupees per annum, and their possession extremely undesirable. The Bustar country has in recent times been more than once held by the Poospati family, from which, from various causes, it reverted to the Nagpoor state. The tribute paid to the Maharattas was originally 10,000 rupees per annum; but afterwards increased to 15,000 rupees. In 1819 the country was described by Major Agnew as unproductive, overspread with jungle, and almost uninhabited. Until lately human sacrifices to Dewteshweeree Devee (Devata Iswari Devi) prevailed in Bustar among the wild Gond tribes; but these being performed in public, have probably, by the interference of the British functionaries, been suppressed. Culprits, prisoners of war, and sometimes innocent persons, were formerly sacrificed at the shrine of this sanguinary goddess, and it was customary with the Gond chiefs to order an offender to pay his devotions before some idol of importance, when he was put to death the moment he prostrated himself.—*(Jenkins, J. B. Blunt, F. W. Robertson, &c.)*

Bustre *(Basti, a dwelling)*.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Gorucpoor, forty miles west from the town of Gorucpoor; lat. 26° 48′ N., lon. 82° 41′ E.

Buswagon.—One of the Calamaine isles belonging to the Philippines, situated about the twelfth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by thirteen the average breadth.

Butchers Island.—A low green island in the harbour of Bombay, situated between the islands of Caranja and Salsette.

Butlul.—A native fortification in Northern Hindostan, twenty-eight miles south of Serinagur: lat. 29° 50′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E.

Butool *(Butaul)*.—A small subdivision of the Oude province, which is within the British limits, although the village of Butool, from whence the name originates, be within those of the Gorkhas. In 1802 a considerable portion of the lands belonged

to the Palpah Raja, and were tolerably well cultivated, principally by emigrants from the Oude territories; but on the cession of Gorucpoor to the British this migration ceased, and the tide turned the opposite way. In 1812 the value of Butool and Sheoraj were assumed at 40,000 rupees per annum.

The village of Butool is situated at the base of the hills on the west bank of the Tenavy, lat. 27° 37′ N., lon. 83° 31′ E., sixty-four miles north from the town of Gorucpoor. It stands on the plain, and is the only place so circumstanced that was left to the Gorkhas west of the Gunduck by the treaty of 1815. In reality it is a most undesirable possession, for it stands in the recess of a mountain, and is so destructively unhealthy, that nobody remains there during the rainy season. Besides this, during the discussions preceding the treaty, it was clearly established that the town of Butool had never belonged to the Nabob of Oude; of course the British, who only succeeded to the just rights of that prince, had no claims to its possession. The Butool Raja formerly possessed extensive dominions among the hills, where he was known as the Raja of Palpa, but of these and his dignity he was stripped by the Gorkhas of Nepaul, when the wheel rose and rendered them predominant.—(*Ahmuty*, *Routledge*, *&c.*)

Butur.—A Batta district in the island of Sumatra, situated inland from the bay of Tapanooly. It consists of the space between Silindung and Toba, an elevated tract of country apparently thirty miles long by twenty broad, bounded on the north-east by Toba, on the north-west by a range of lofty mountains running east and west, on the south-west by Silindang, and on the south-east by a broken hilly tract, extending southward to the hill of Angkola. The whole plain is free from wood, and in 1822 presented a wide field of verdure, with detached straw huts and patches of mountain rice.—(*Burton and Ward*, *&c.*)

Buxar (*Bagsar*).—A town and fortress in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, situated on the east side of the Ganges, fifty-eight miles E.N.E. from Benares. The fort is constructed on a small mound of conker soil, which here projects into the river, and no where from hence to the sea does the Ganges flow through so confined a channel. The works are kept in good repair, and garrisoned by Sepoy invalids.

A celebrated victory was gained here in October 1764 by the British forces under Major (afterwards Sir Hector) Munro, over the united armies of Shuja ud Dowlah and Cossim Khan. The first consisted of 856 Europeans and 6,215 sepoys, of whom eighty-seven Europeans and 712 sepoys were killed and wounded. The combined army was computed at 40,000 men, 2,000 of whom are supposed to have been slain in the battle. The flight of the allies was so tumultuous that they did not stop at Buxar, but hastened to a nullah beyond it, which being full, many were drowned and slaughtered in attempting to pass. The plunder was great, as they left their tents standing; and their whole train of artillery, consisting of 133 pieces, of various sizes was taken. A native historian (Gholaum Hossein) describes the camp of the two chiefs while advancing in the following terms: "a bridge of boats being thrown over the Ganges, the allied armies began their march, in numbers not to be reckoned; but, from the ignorance of their commanders and want of discipline, murdering and plundering each other. It was not an army, but rather a moving nation." Travelling distance from Benares seventy miles, from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 485 miles, by Birboom 408 miles.—(*Gholaum Hossein*, *Fullarton*, *Rennell*, *&c.*)

Buxedwar (*Bakshedwara*).—A remarkable pass leading from the belt of low land that separates Cooch Bahar from Bootan; lat. 26° 52′ N., lon. 89° 38′ E., eighty miles north by east from the town of Rungpoor in Bengal. Buxedwar is a spot of great

natural strength, and being a frontier station in this quarter, has also been rendered strong by art. In 1783 the village consisted of ten or twelve houses, invisible until the moment of entrance. It stands on a second table of levelled rock, upon which there is very little soil; yet it is covered with verdure in consequence of its sheltered position, surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains, and open only to the south, where the prospect looks down on Bengal. The country, coming from the south, continues flat to the foot of the Buxedwar hill. The ascent to Santarabary is easy, but the road afterwards becomes abrupt and precipitous; yet the hills are covered with trees to their summits. At Santarabary are extensive orange groves, and raspberry bushes are found in the jungles. —(*Capt. Turner, &c*)

BUXWAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles north-west from Huttah; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E.

BUXYGUNGE (*Bakshegunj*) — A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty-four miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad

BYDETT —A town and small pergunnah in the province of Bengal, ninety-five miles north from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 32′ N, lon. 88° 10′ E.

BYGONBARRY (*Vaicantha Bari*) — A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsingh, situated on the west side of the Brahmaputra, seventy-five miles north by east from Dacca; lat. 24° 46′ N., lon, 90° E. This place was the head-quarters of the district for some time after its formation, but at present the actual residence of the judge and magistrate is at Nusserabad, eight miles further south. In 1821 it contained one indigo factory.

BYORAM.—A town in the Hyderabad province, forty-nine miles north from Cummumait; lat. 17° 57′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E

BYRAGHUR (*Vairaghar*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-five miles S.W. from Sumbhulpoor; lat. 20° 18′ N., lon. 82° 55′ E. This place formerly belonged to Chanda, and the country still bears that name, although they subsequently became separate governments. In 1794 it contained 300 thatched and tiled houses, and was considered by the Maharattas, to whom it then belonged, as a strong place. It had then a stone fort on the north-west side, under the east face of which runs the Kobragur, a stream that afterwards joins the Wainy or Raumgunga. At the above date Byraghur was a place of some traffic, principally in cotton from the interior, which was carried to the sea-coast of the northern circars, and exchanged for salt, betel, and cocoa-nuts.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c*)

BYRAGHUR.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, which in 1820 contained 1,200 inhabitants; five miles west from Dillanpoor.

BYRAMGHAUT.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the west side of the Goggra, thirty-six miles N.E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 6′ N., lon. 81° 21′ E.

BYRATH —A pass in northern Hindostan, thirty-seven miles east by north from Nahan, and 7,599 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 35′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E.

BYRAIA.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles from Oojein. In 1820 it had a good bazar, and contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BYTURNEE (*Vaiturani*) RIVER.—A river of Cuttack, which ranks second after the Mahanuddy. It rises in the mountainous region of Chuta Nagpoor, in the province of Bahar, and after a course of between 300 and 400 miles, and receiving various contributary streams, joins the Bay of Bengal a little to the north of Point Palmyras.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

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Cabo.—A rocky promontory at the western extremity of the island of Goa, opposite to the fort of Alguarda, and the site of the ancient Portuguese church and monastery of Nostra Senhora del Cabo. This spot commands a magnificent view of the harbour of Goa on the one side, and on the other the bay of Marmagra, studded with islets and white monastic buildings. There are also several large convents between this point and Panjim, or new Goa, while the intermediate country presents one continued grove of cocoa-nut trees.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CABUL.

The kingdom of Cabul, while flourishing, comprehended the greater part of Afghanistan; but at present it is difficult to establish its limits, or even its existence. Assuming its extent as described by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, we find it bounded on the east by Hindostan (where it possessed Cashmere, and some tracts on the left bank of the Indus), on the south it may be roughly considered (including tributary countries) as bounded by the sea; on the west a desert extends along the whole frontier; its northern limit is marked by the mountains of the Eastern Caucasus. According to the nomenclature of the latest maps, it includes Afghanistan and Segistan, with part of Khorasan and Mekran; Bulk, with Tokaristan and Kilan, Caffristan, Cabul, Candahar, Sinde, and Cashmere, together with a portion of Lahore, and the greater part of Mooltan. The total population of these extensive regions, in 1809, was estimated by Mr. Elphinstone at fourteen millions, in the following proportions, *viz.*

Afghans	4,300,000
Belooches	1,000,000
Tartars of all descriptions	1,200,000
Persians and Tajiks	1,500,000
Hindostanies (Cashmerians, Juts, &c.)	5,700,000
Miscellaneous tribes	300,000
Total	14,000,000

With respect to its geography, the modern province of Cabul (occasionally named Zabulistan) is divided into two parts, separated by a ridge of very high mountains, usually covered with snow, which runs from east to west from the neighbourhood of Ghizni to that of Deenkote. Distant as the time is, however, so little has it been explored, that the best description of this romantic country, the cradle of so many of the conquerors of Hindostan, is that given by the Emperor Baber, in his personal memoirs, where he treats of his adventures from A.D. 1500 to 1510. The northern tract is named Lughmanat, the southern Bungishat, each having one or more considerable streams intersecting their whole length. The valley of the Cabul river separates the southern projection of the Hindoo Cosh, from the Soliman mountains on the south, the interval having the appearance of a breach in a continued chain once formed by these ridges. The breach between them is in some places twenty-five miles wide. This valley towards the east is occupied by hills that stretch from mountain to mountain, but with inferior elevation. West of these hills is Jellalabad, and still further west the surface rises so much, that although Gundamak be in a valley with respect to the southern projection, or to the lofty eminences of Soliman, it is on a mountain when compared to Jellalabad. The Cabul river flows through the centre of this space, and into its basin all the vallies in this quarter of Hindoo Cosh open.

The aspect of Cabul is highly diversified, being an aggregate of snowy mountains, moderate sized hills, and extensive plains and forests; but from the city of Cabul to the Indus there is an invariable deficiency of wood. The principal towns are Cabul, Peshawer (the modern capital), and Ghizni. The central districts about the first, possessing few Indian commodities, receive sugar and cotton cloths, mostly from Peshawer, whither they send leather, iron, and tobacco. To Candahar are exported iron, leather,

and lamp oil, whence the returns are made in sundry manufactures of Persia and Europe. The Tartars of Bokhara bring to Cabul the horses of Turkistan, furs, and hides; the latter resembling those in Europe termed Bulgar; the proceeds are invested in indigo and other productions of Hindostan.

In A.D. 997, when Cabul was invaded by Sebuctaghi, the first sovereign of the Ghizni dynasty, the eastern section of the province, although west of the Indus, was still occupied by Hindoos, subject to a prince of that religion named Jypal, whose capital was named Batinda, and whose dominions extended in a north-west direction to Lughmanat, and in a south-east line from Cashmere to Mooltan. The whole was finally subdued by Sultan Mahmood about A.D 1008, and its subsequent history will be found under the articles Ghizni and Afghanistan. In modern times, Cabul attracted attention in 1809, when the French projected the invasion of Hindostan through the Afghan dominions, to counteract which, Mr. Elphinstone was sent to Peshawer by the Bengal government, and concluded arrangements which completely neutralized the projected expedition. In 1826 Cabul was partitioned amongst the sons of the late Vizier Futteh Khan, who were always at variance.—(*Elphinstone, Forster, Rennell, &c.*)

Cabul.—A city of Afghanistan, the capital of the Cabul province; lat. 34° 10′ N., lon. 69° 15′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Cabul is a very ancient and beautiful city, of which Pusheng is said to be the founder. There are double walls of considerable strength, on the south-east side of a small hill named Shah Cabul. From early antiquity Cabul and Candahar have been reckoned the gates of Hindostan; one affording entrance from Tooraun, the other from Iran."

The modern city of Cabul is the capital, and usually the residence of the Durrany sovereigns of Afghanistan. It stands in a plain abundantly watered, and interspersed with walled villages. It is divided by the Cabul river, and in its vicinity has many groves and gardens, especially on the north and west. The most pleasing spot is the tomb of the Emperor Baber, which stands on the top of a hill over the city, commanding a noble view. The town is compact and handsome, but not of great magnitude. It is enclosed on three sides by a semicircle of low hills, protected on the top by a wall of little strength. On the east there is an opening, fortified by a rampart, and here the principal road enters by a gate, after passing over the river on a bridge. The Balla Hissar, which stands on that portion of the hill north of the entrance, is a kind of citadel, containing the king's palace, and there is also an upper citadel used as a state prison.

Ali Merdan Khan, a celebrated Mogul sovereign of Jehangir's reign, erected in the centre four spacious bazars, two stories high, arched over, and supplied with fountains, now choked up with filth. Owing to the frequency of earthquakes, most of the other buildings are of wood. The bazars are well supplied; and the town, while the seat of government, was an emporium of considerable trade, frequently crowded with Usbeck Tartars, resembling in feature the Chinese and Malays, but with a harsher expression. Here is also to be found a colony of Armenians, captured by Nadir Shah during his Turkish campaigns. Many Hindoos frequent Cabul, mostly from Peshawer; and as by their industry they contribute greatly to its prosperity, they are carefully cherished by the Afghan government.

This city being lower than Ghizni, and more enclosed by hills, does not suffer so much from extreme cold, the winter not being severe, while it is steadier than the winter of England; but, on the other hand, the heat of summer is much more intense. The climate and scenery of Cabul have been celebrated by many poets

of Persia and Hindostan, who extol the beauty and abundance of its flowers and fruits, the latter of which, when dried, are transported to the remotest parts of India. Travelling distance from Delhi, 839 miles; from Agra, 976; from Lucknow, 1,118; and from Calcutta, 1,815 miles.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, Rennell, &c.*)

CABYNA.—A small island about twenty-one miles in length by fifteen in breadth, lying due south of the eastern limb of Celebes, lat. 5° 18′ S, lon. 121° 53′ E

CACHAR (*or Hairumbo*).—The province of Cachar, or more properly Hairumbo, lies within lat 24° to 27° N, and from 92° to 94° E, comprehending an area of about 140 miles from north to south, and about 100 from east to west, on the north it is bounded by the Brahmaputra river and kingdom of Assam, on the west by the territory of Gentiah; on the south by Silhet and Tipera, while eastward it extends to the small principality of Munipoor. The ancient and peculiar distinctive name of this territory is Hairumbo, although the inhabitants are described as Cacharies The province comprehends two divisions, that of Cachar Proper, which borders on Bengal, and that of Dharmapoor, which lies north of the main ridge of mountains, which are difficult to pass. The ancient capital of Hairumbo was Grobarge, situated about lat. 25° 45′ N., and twenty miles north from Cospoor, the modern capital. It is separated from Silhet by the Dullasery nullah and the Soorma or Barak river.

The principal rivers of Hairumbo are the Capili and the Barak, both of which spring in the eastern mountains, and ultimately join the Megna, carrying with them the waters of nearly all the smaller streams. The tract of country lying under the mountains abounds with bogs and marshes, and during the rainy season presents several large sheets of water. The mountains are covered with forest trees, long grass jungles and occasionally bamboos. The northern mountains are a branch of these, called the Garrow mountains; those in the south and south-east are a continuation of the Tipera hills, which after stretching northward as far as Cospoor, turn abruptly to the west until they meet the Brahmaputra The height of these hills is from 600 to 1,000 feet, but the faces of some of them towards the west being precipitous, many small waterfalls are seen. Through these mountains there are said to be three passes, practicable at all seasons of the year: two leading to Dharmapoor, and the third to Cospoor. So savage and inaccessible a country requires few artificial fortifications, yet there are said to be some redoubts and stockades. About forty miles to the south-east of Cospoor are the Bhavani mountains, through which there is a pass leading to Munipoor and the kingdom of Ava.

This country being much overrun with jungle, there is a great want of practicable roads. This, however, as far as commerce is concerned, is compensated by the internal navigation the Barak affords, along which the British troops and stores always moved in boats. The breadth of this river varies in different parts of its course, at Tilyn it is 150 yards broad, but where the road from Attingah to Acquee crosses it, only seventy yards In the dry season it is fordable in many places, but soon after the commencement of the rains it rises rapidly, and has then thirty to forty feet depth of water At Ilchar, near Doodputlee, a number of broken rocks reach across the channel, and during the dry season cause rapids; but in the rains they are covered with twenty feet of water. The Barak begins to rise so early as February; but meeting no check from the Megna, runs off immediately, so that there is no permanent inundation until the beginning of June, after which the country remains almost impracticable for an army until November; indeed, from the middle of that month until the end of February is the only fit season for military operations.

The population of Hairumbo is scanty in proportion to its area; one estimate, probably much exaggerated, states it at 80,000 families. The most populous tract is in the level country adjacent to Dharmapoor, and in the parts most contiguous to Bengal. The revenues of Hairumbo were formerly estimated at one lack of rupees per annum, but in 1817 had dwindled down to 30,000 rupees. Among other sources of revenue to the Cachar Raja are the produce of certain salt-pits, which not only furnish a quantity equal to the wants of the principality, but also a surplus for exportation. The other exports consist of commodities the indigenous products of the country, such as the coarse silk named Moong and Tusser, wax, cotton, timber, limestone, and iron ore, which last they have not yet learned the art to fuse and convert into a metallic state.

The inhabitants of both sexes are strong and robust, with countenances more of a Chinese than Bengalese aspect, and in complexion fairer than the latter; they have no peculiar written character, having borrowed that of Bengal, as well as its language. The original Hairumbian dialect is said to have been monosyllabic, but it may be said to be now extinct, such of the inhabitants as can read apply themselves principally to the legendary and mythological poems of Bengal. The Cacharies are a numerous tribe, who are scattered over this quarter of Asia, although the name is usually limited to the petty state of Cachar, which although fertile, is thinly inhabited, and much overgrown with jungle. Before the reign of Hari Chandra, about A.D. 1780, the distinction of caste was unknown; but during his reign the brahminical system of religion was introduced, and of course the sacerdotal superiority. Durga, the wife of Siva, is the principal object of adoration, under various characters, but more especially under that of Cali, a destructive female energy, whom they are said occasionally to propitiate with human sacrifices; the guardian deity, however, of Hairumbo is said to be Ramchandra.

Cachar was first invaded by the Burmese in 1774, during the reign of Shembuan; but their troops being seized with the jungle fever, a disease fatally known to the British army, the detachment was dispersed, cut off in detail, or perished by disease. A second expedition from Ava was more successful, the Raja being so intimidated that besides the payment of a sum of money, he engaged to send a maiden and also a tree with the roots bound in the native clay, as an unequivocal mark of subjugation. It is probable that the Burmese soon after evacuated this unprofitable country, as we do not hear of them until 1810, when they again interfered with the affairs of Cachar, having previously placed Marjeet on the throne as a tributary. In 1810 they summoned him to Ava; but declining compliance, Munipoor was captured by the Burmese, and Marjeet retiring into Cachar with 5,000 followers, expelled Govind Chandra (who had in his service Gumbheer Singh, the brother of Marjeet, who betrayed him), who fled into the British territories. Choorjeet (the brother of Marjeet and Gumbheer Singh) afterwards expelled all the others and governed Cachar for five years. In 1823, finding himself quite unable to control his own subjects or resist the Burmese, he offered to place Cachar under the British protection, which was conceded, but before the treaty could be concluded, he (Marjeet) was expelled by Gumbheer Singh, and retired to Silhet. The negociation was renewed with Gumbheer Sing; but after much evasion he withheld his consent, even when a Burmese invasion was impending, confiding in the natural difficulties of his country, and believing that he would always be sure of the aid of the British government. It was then determined to restore the legitimate raja, Govind Chandra, the descendant of Raja Krishna Chandra, who had governed Cachar for forty years, and assign pensions to the Munipoor brothers,

Marjeet and Gumbheer Singh, the last of whom, on the advance of the Burmese, in January 1824, fled into Silhet. A British detachment now penetrated the Cachar province, and after several sharp actions, expelled the Burmese, who subsequently at the treaty of Yandaboo, relinquished all pretensions to the province, or any right of interference, its Raja then became wholly dependent on British protection, for which he agreed to pay a tribute of 10,000 rupees per annum.—(*Friend to India, Public Journals, Symes, &c.*)

CACHAR.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, province of Tunquin, of which it is said to be the modern capital. It stands on the river Tunquin, about 120 miles from its mouth.

CAFFRISTAN.—An elevated region to the north of the Cabul dominions, which occupies a great part of the Hindoo Cosh mountains, and a portion of those of Beloot Taugh. On the north-east it is bounded by Cashgar, on the north by Badukshan, and on the north-west by Koondooz, in Bulk On the west it has Inderaub and Khost, also in Bulk, and the Cohistan of Cabul; on the east it extends for a great distance towards the north of Cashmere, where its boundary is not distinctly ascertained There is a curve which is observed from the south of Hindoo Cosh, which rises over Bijore This projection, with the nearest portion of Hindoo Cosh and some of the neighbouring branches, is inhabited by the Siaposh, or black-wearing Caffres. The ascent to their country leads along frightful precipices, and through deep and narrow chasms, where the traveller is endangered by the rocky fragments that roll down from above, either loosened by the wind and rain, or by the goats and other wild animals that browze on the overhanging cliffs. These Caffres inhabit narrow, but rich and pleasant spots, producing abundance of grapes, and for the most part surmounted by snowy peaks. The Caffre country extends beyond the western angle formed by the curve, and the ridge that proceeds to the west, until it disappears among the Paropamisan mountains.

The whole alpine region of Caffristan consists of snowy mountains, deep pine forests, with small but fertile valleys, which produce large quantities of grapes, both wild and cultivated, and furnish pasture for sheep and cattle, while the hills subsist numerous flocks of goats. Grain, as an article of food, is inferior both in quantity and importance, the commonest kinds being wheat and millet. The roads are only fit for foot travellers, and are often interrupted by rivers and torrents, which are crossed either on stationary wooden bridges, or by bridges swinging on ropes made of the pliant withes of some tree. The villages are built on the slopes of hills, so that the roof of one house forms the path leading to the one above it. The valleys are said to be well-peopled: that of the Camojee tribe, containing ten villages, had one named Camdesh consisting of 500 houses.

This people are named Caffres or infidels by their Mahomedan neighbours, and their country Caffristan; but among themselves have no general name for their own nation, being divided into many tribes, each having its peculiar designation. The Mahomedans call one division black infidels, and another white infidels; but both epithets are taken from their dress, the Caffres being noted for their fairness, and the beauty of their complexion Those of the largest division wear a sort of vest of black goat skins, while the lesser dress in white cotton. There are several dialects among the Caffres, which have many words in common, all having a near connexion with the Sanscrit, which derivation renders their conjectured Greek origin extremely improbable, neither do their traditions furnish any satisfactory account of their origin. The most credible is, that they were expelled by the Mahomedans from the neighbourhood of Candahar, at which era they are said to have consisted of

four tribes, named Camoze, Hilar, Silar, and Comoje. The three first are reported to have become converts to the Mahomedan religion; while the last, adhering to its ancient rites, migrated from their native country. One peculiarity among the Caffre arrangement of numbers is, that they count by scores instead of hundreds, and that their thousand (which they call by the Persian and Afghan name) consists of 400, or twenty score.

By their neighbours, the Afghans, the Caffres are said to believe in one God, named by the villagers of Camdesh, Imra, and by those of Tsokooe, Dagun; but they also worship many idols, which they say represent great men of former days, who intercede with the Deity in favour of their votaries; in this respect coinciding with the Jains and Buddhists. The idols are of stone or wood, and always represent men or women, mounted or on foot, the Caffre pantheon, however, is not of difficult access. In Camdesh, one of the largest villages, a principal inhabitant, renowned for his hospitality and good cheer, during his life-time erected a statue to himself, which on his decease was as much worshipped as any of the more ancient gods by his tribe venerated This facility of deification must augment the aggregate number of gods, but many must be confined to particular localities and tribes: accordingly the gods of Camdesh appear quite different from those of Tsokooe, although there is one common to both. The chief gods or deified heroes of Camdesh are, 1st. Bugheesh (probably Bhagesa or Bacchus), 2d Mani, who expelled Yoosh, or the evil principle, from the world; 3d. Urrum; 4th. Pursoo; 5th. Geesh; 6th. seven brothers, having the appellation of Paradik, who were created from a golden tree, and had golden bodies, 7th. seven golden brothers of the same description; 8th. Koomyee, by Mahomedans called the wife of Adam; 9th. Dessaunee, the wife of Geesh; 10th. Dohee; 11th. Surijoo (probably the sun); 12th. Nishtee.

On the other hand the gods of Tsokooe are Maunde (perhaps Mani before-mentioned), Marraist, Murrasooree, and Inderjee (probably the Hindoo deity Indra); and, like these names, many of their rites have a Hindoo character; but their eating beef and sprinkling with blood, even that of cows, cannot be reconciled with the Brahminical religion, although fire be a requisite at every ceremony, and some of their idols have a resemblance to the lingam or emblem of Siva. The Caffres have a hereditary priesthood, but their influence is not great. They detest fish, which, from the inland and mountainous nature of their country, they can but seldom have an opportunity of seeing; but they hold no other animal impure, eating indiscriminately beef, mutton, and the flesh of bears. Their festivals are often accompanied with a sacrifice, and always with a feast, but many of their other ceremonies have no connexion with religion. A wife is procured by purchase from the father, which sometimes amounts to twenty cows. The females are not concealed. Adultery is not much reprobated, although there is a punishment enacted for it. Besides their wives, the rich inhabitants of Caffristan have male and female slaves, who are also Caffres, for in their wars with the Mahomedans they take no prisoners. Some of these slaves are captured in battle from hostile tribes; others from tribes with which they are at peace; but the greater proportion belong to their own tribe, it being quite common for powerful men to seize on children, and either sell them to the Mahomedans, or retain them for their own service. A person who loses his relations is soon made a slave. The Afghans purchase Caffres for slaves, and some are made prisoners by the Yusephzei tribe on the borders of Caffristan; but the trade between the two countries is in other respects trifling. The captives are generally females, who are much sought after on account of the remarkable beauty of their nation.

The civil and political government of the Caffres is almost wholly unknown. It is uncertain whether or not there are any magistrates; the probability is that there are none, and that the public business is carried on by the chief men of each tribe, where the law of retaliation is firmly established. They have no honorary titles, but have borrowed that of khan from the Afghans. Their property consists mostly of cattle and slaves. In 1810, at the village of Camdesh, one rich man possessed 800 goats, 300 oxen, and eight families of slaves. Among the black-wearing Caffres, the dress of the lower classes consists of four goat skins, two forming a vest, and the other two a sort of petticoat, with the hair outside. Until they have slain a Mahomedan they go bareheaded, shave their heads except a long tuft on the crown, and wear beards four or five inches long The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, except that their hair is plaited on the top of their heads, with a small cap over it, round which is a turban. They have also silver ornaments, and many cowry shells. Both sexes have earrings, rings round their necks, and bracelets, sometimes of silver, but more frequently of pewter or brass. The Caffre funerals differ in many respects from those of other nations. When an individual dies he is dressed in his best clothes, extended on a bed, and his weapons placed beside him. After being carried about for some time by his relations, the male dancing and singing, and the female lamenting, he is shut up in a coffin and deposited in the open air under the shade of trees, or some other appropriate situation.

The Caffre dwelling-houses are generally of wood, and they have others where they keep their cheeses, clarified butter, wine, and vinegar. In every house there is a wooden bench fixed to the wall with a low back to it, and there are stools shaped like drums, but smaller in the middle than at the ends. Partly owing to their dress and partly to custom, the Caffres cannot sit like other Asiatics, so that when forced to sit on the ground they are compelled to stretch out their legs like Europeans. The stools are made of wicker-work, and they have also beds constructed of wood and thongs of neat's leather. Their food is usually cheese, butter, and milk, with bread, or a sort of suet pudding; but they also eat flesh, which they prefer half raw. Their fruits are walnuts, grapes, apples, almonds, and a sort of wild apricot. Both sexes are said to drink wine to great excess; of this they have three kinds, red, white, and dark-coloured, besides a sort of a jelly consistence, and very strong. They drink during meals, and when elevated become quarrelsome. They are all exceedingly hospitable, hunt but little, their favourite amusement being dancing, which is prosecuted with great vehemence by all ages and sexes. Their instruments are a pipe and tabor, their music quick, wild, and varied.

One of the most distinguishing characteristics of the nation, is their unceasing war with the neighbouring Mahomedans. The latter frequently invade their territories in small parties, and carry off slaves, but about 1780 a species of general crusade against them was undertaken. The Khan of Badukshan, one of the princes of Cashgar, the Padshah (king) of Cooner, the Bauz of Bijore, and several Yusephzei Khans, having confederated, formed a junction in the heart of the Caffre country; but they were unable to retain possession, and compelled to evacuate with considerable loss The Caffre weapons are a bow about four and a half feet long with a leathern string, and light arrows of reed with barbed heads, which they sometimes poison. They wear a dagger on the right side and a sharp knife on the left, along with which they carry a flint, and tinder made of bark. They have also begun to learn the use of swords and fire-arms from their Afghan neighbours. Sometimes they attack their enemy openly, but their usual mode

is by ambush and surprise. On many occasions they give no quarter, but their chief glory is the destruction of a Mahomedan, as until a young Caffre has performed this exploit he is precluded from various privileges. Their customs in this respect and some others greatly resemble those of the Garrow mountaineers on the north-eastern frontier of Bengal. In solemn dances, in the festivals of Numinaut, each man wears a turban, into which a long feather is stuck for every Mahomedan he has slain; the number of bells which he is authorized to wear round his waist is also regulated in the same ratio. A Caffre who has not killed his man, is not permitted during the dance to flourish his axe above his head. Such as have the good luck to kill a Mahomedan are visited and congratulated by their neighbours, and have afterwards a right to wear a little red woollen cap, or cockade, tied to his head; those who have slain many may erect a high pole before their doors, in which are holes to receive a pin for every Mahomedan the owner has destroyed, and a ring for each he has wounded. It is said, however, that notwithstanding the inveteracy of their hatred, they sometimes conclude a truce or peace with the Mahomedans, accompanied by strange ceremonies.

Such are the principal details that have reached us of the manners and customs of these Asiatic Caffres; but as the information comes to us through the medium of the neighbouring Mahomedans, at once the objects and narrators of the alleged barbarities, it must be received with considerable allowance for exaggeration, more especially as the same authorities inform us that the Caffres are in general a harmless, affectionate, warm-hearted people, who, although quick and passionate, are easily appeased, and naturally gay and sociable, and kind even to Mahomedans, whom they admit as guests to share their hospitality. By old Mahomedan writers this tract is frequently termed Kuttore, and the expedition of Timour to the mountains of Kuttore is particularly related by Sheriffedin. From his narrative, it appears that Timour first proceeded from Badukshan to Kawuk or Khawick, the furthest or most eastern of the passes leading through the Hindoo Cosh mountains into the province of Cabul. In order to arrive at the fortress of Kuttore he crossed several ranges of high mountains, rising one above the other, some of them covered with snow. The fortress was situated at the foot of the further range, having a river of great depth and rapidity close under its walls.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

CAGGAR RIVER.—The Camphylis, now Cambali, is a considerable stream four miles west of Ambala, in the Delhi province towards Sirhind, and it falls into the Dreshadvati now the Caggar, which is the common division of the east and north-west divisions of Hindostan, according to a passage in the commentaries on the Vedas.—(*Wilford, &c.*)

CAHLORE (*Cahalar*).—A small principality (named by Abul Fazel Ghahlore) in northern Hindostan, situated on both banks of the Sutuleje, the capital of which, Belaspoor, stands in lat. 31° 14′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E., seventy miles N.E. from Ludeeana. Its chief is also frequently named the Belaspoor Raja.

In 1803 the possessions of Cahlore were reduced to the capital and pergunnah of Tuhawat, the rest having been seized by the Hindoor Raja. Subsequently, by the assistance of the Gorkhas, Raja Mahachund of Cahlore recovered all the twelve lordships, and restored the principality to nearly its former magnitude; but in 1807 Runjeet Singh of Lahore again stripped him of a large portion of his territory. During the Nepaulese war, the country of Belaspoor was left entirely at the mercy of the British army, when General Ochterlony offered terms to the Cahlore Raja, who had adhered to the Gorkhas with exemplary fidelity: which he joyfully accepted, and having ever since per-

formed his new duties with punctuality, has been exempted from tribute. In 1816, Cahlore possessed on the east of the Sutuleje (the only tract guaranteed by the British government) the forts of Ruttunghur, Bahadurghur, Futtehpoor, Taem, and Mookur. The revenues beyond the Sutuleje were estimated at 32,000 rupees, east of it 28,000, making a total of 60,000 rupees. The inhabitants of this little principality are of a more martial disposition than those of Hindoor and Baghul. Every Cahlorian zemindar possesses a sword, and almost every village contains some fire-arms.—(*Lieut Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Cailas Mountains.—This ridge of high mountains is situated about the 31st degree of north latitude, slanting to the north-west and south-east, and almost parallel to the Himalaya, but its eastern and western limits are unknown. West from lake Manasarovara for about two hundred miles, the separation is very distinctly marked by the course of the Sutuleje, the intervening space, from thirty to forty miles in breadth, being the valley through which that river flows to the north-west, until it winds to the south, and penetrates the Himalaya at lat. 32° north. It has been thought by some that the northern ridge is distinguished by the name of Cailas, while the southern retains that of Himalaya, but the mountaineers make no such distinction. They, as well as the dwellers on the plains, appear to call every high place crowned with snow, Cailas, and apply it equally to the southern and to the northern ridge.

It is probable that the Cailas range is little, if at all, loftier than the Himalaya; but behind the surface evidently declines, as the waters there have a northerly course through Tartary towards the icy sea of Asia. A lofty peak on the north-west, covered with never-melting snow, is supposed to be the favourite throne of Siva, who must find it rather a cool seat at any season of the year. Some mountain torrents rise in the Cailas range, and disembogue into the Rawan Hrad lake. The principal of these are the Siva Gunga, the Gauri Ganga, the Dharchan Gadra, and the Catyuyani.

The portion of Tibet between the Cailas and Himalaya mountains appears to be a sort of oblong table-land, yet studded with irregular hills and ridges, some covered with everlasting snow, others only partially concealed, but the whole bare of verdure, rocky and barren. The intervening vallies are of a better description, and afford, during the height of summer and beginning of autumn, pasturage to the flocks of the inhabitants, who, with the exception of a few gylums (monks) and their associates, seem to be migratory, as on the approach of winter they seek refuge with their cattle in a milder climate. During the whole summer the heat is such as to admit of their raising a small quantity of grain, but not sufficient even for the few inhabitants of this desolate region; which on the other hand is rich in gold, and probably other metals, and steams with springs, hot, saline, calcareous, and sulphurous. This tract also includes the two holy lakes of Manasarovara, and Rawan's Hrad, and with the Hindoos the whole is sacred ground, on account of its sterile soil, horrible climate, and difficult access.

Caithal.—A town in the province of Delhi, which in 1817 was the principal town and residence of the Seik chief Bylal Singh; lat. 29° 49' N. It is mentioned as one of the marches of Timour on his route from Samana to Delhi.—(*Captain Hodgson, &c.*)

Cajori River.—A large branch of the Mahanuddy river, which separates at Cuttack, and terminates principally in the Alankar, which is deep and narrow, and pursues a singularly winding course, until it is lost amidst a variety of lesser ramifications. About half way between Cuttack and the sea the Cajori sends off a large

branch, which after dividing, doubling on itself, and again branching out into a labyrinth of fantastical intricacies, enters the sea at last in a broad channel, about forty miles north of the black pagoda, under the appellation of the Debnuddy. Another large stream leaves the Mahanuddy opposite to Cuttack, and afterwards separates into three principal streams, the Bhargabi, Daya, and Kushadra, which flow south, inclining a little to the east. The last enters the sea between the black pagoda and Juggernauth. The two first uniting again into one channel, discharge their waters into the Chilka lake, called by different names at different stages of their course, and finally the Harchundi. During the heavy rains of 1817, the waters of the Cajori rose eighteen feet in one night, overtopping the general level of the town and station at least six feet.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

CALAMAINES ISLES.—A number of small islands in the eastern seas belonging to the Philippines, situated half way between Mindoro and the island of Palawan, about the twelfth degree of north latitude. The two largest are named Busvagon and Calamaine, the last being about twenty-three miles long by five in breadth. The coast around these islands is strewed with numberless shoals, rocks, and fragments of islets, that render the navigation dangerous.

CALANORE.—A town in the province of Lahore, where the emperor Acber, on the death of his father Humayoon, in 1556, was first proclaimed. Lat. 32° 1′ N., lon. 74° 53′ E., thirty miles north from Amritsir.

CALANTAN.—A petty state on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, extending from the river Basut to that of Banara, where it borders on Patna. It comprehends fifty mukkims or parishes, with a population of 50,000 inhabitants besides Chinese. It exports gold, tin, and pepper; the second to the amount of 3,000 piculs, and the last to 12,000 piculs annually. Besides those Chinese who are otherwise occupied, it is said that within the three states of Pahang, Tringanu, and Calantan, 15,000 are engaged in working the gold mines, from which they extract to the value of 420,000 dollars yearly. A great portion of this goes to Singapoor, and another across the mountains to Penang and Malacca.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

CALAMUNDELGHUR.—A fortress occupying the summit of a high mountain in the province of Bejapoor, about twenty-three miles travelling distance west of Belgaum. It was acquired from the Peshwa, and in 1820 was garrisoned by a small party of British sepoys. At the base of the mountain stands the hamlet of Patna.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CALAYAN.—A small island in the eastern seas, one of the Philippines, twenty-three miles in circumference, situated due north of the large island of Luzon or Luçonia.

CALBERGA (*Calbarga*).—A town in the province of Beeder, the capital of a district, situated 107 miles west from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 19′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E. This is now a place of little note, but was famous in ancient times, having been the capital both of a Hindoo and Mahomedan sovereignty. Rajas of Calberga are mentioned as independent princes when the Deccan was invaded by Allah ud Deen, in A.D. 1295; and when the founder of the Bhamenee dynasty erected the standard of rebellion in 1347, this was his capital.—(*Ferishta, Scott, &c.*)

CALCUTTA.

(*Calicata.*)

This city is situated about 100 miles from the sea, on the east side of the western branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hooghly, or Calcutta river, but by the natives the Bhagirathi and true Ganges, and considered by them peculiarly holy. Fort William, its citadel, stands in lat 22° 23′ N., lon. 88° 28′ E.

The locality of this capital is not fortunate, for it has extensive muddy lakes, and an immense forest close to it, and was at first deemed scarcely less unhealthy than Batavia, which it resembled in being placed in a flat and marshy country. The English, it has been remarked, are more inattentive to the local advantages of situation than the French, who have always, in India, selected better stations for founding their foreign settlements. The jungle has since been cleared away to a certain distance, the streets properly drained, and the ponds filled up, by which a vast surface of stagnant water has been removed; but the air of the town is still much affected by the vicinity of the Sunderbunds. At high water the river is here a full mile in breadth, but during the ebb-tide the opposite shore exposes a long range of dry sandbanks. On approaching Calcutta from the sea the stranger is much struck with the magnificence of its appearance; the elegant villas on each side of the river, the government botanical gardens, the spires of the churches and temples, and the strong and regular citadel of Fort William.

In A.D. 1717 it exhibited a very different appearance. The present town was then a village appertaining to the district of Nuddea, the houses of which were scattered about in clusters of ten or twelve each, and the inhabitants chiefly husbandmen A forest existed to the south of Champaul Ghaut, which was afterwards removed by degrees. Between Kidderpoor and the forest were two villages, whose inhabitants were invited to settle in Calcutta by the ancient family of the Seats, who were at that time merchants of great note, and very instrumental in bringing Calcutta into the form of a town. Fort William and the esplanade are the site where this forest and the two villages above-mentioned stood. In 1717 there was a straggling village consisting of small houses, surrounded by puddles of water, where now stand the elegant houses of Chowringhee, and Calcutta may at this period be described as extending to Chitpoor bridge, but the intervening space consisted of ground covered with jungle. In 1742 a ditch was dug round a considerable portion of Calcutta, to prevent the incursions of the Maharattas; and it appears from Orme's History of the War in Bengal, that at the time of its capture by Seraje ud Dowlah, in 1756, there were about seventy houses in the town belonging to the English. What are now called the esplanade, the site of Fort William, and Chowringhee, were so late as 1756 a complete jungle, interspersed with huts, and small pieces of grazing and arable land.

The modern town of Calcutta extends along the east side of the river above six miles, but the breadth varies much at different places. The esplanade between the town and Fort William leaves a grand opening, along the border of which is placed the new government house, erected by the Marquis Wellesley; and continued on a line with this edifice is a range of magnificent houses, ornamented with spacious verandas Chowringhee, formerly a collection of native huts, is now an entire village of palaces, and extends for a considerable distance into the country. The architecture of the houses is Grecian, which does not appear adapted for the country or climate, the pillars of the verandahs being too elevated to keep out the sun during the morning and evening, while in the wet season it is deluged with rain. Perhaps a more confined Hindoo style of building, although less ornamental, might be found of more practical comfort. The principal square extends about 500 yards each way, and contains in the centre an extensive tank, surrounded by a handsome wall and railing, and having a gradation of steps to the bottom, which is sixty feet from the top of its banks. A range of indifferent-looking houses, known by the name of the Writers' Buildings, occupies one side of the square. The famous black hole no longer exists, it having been taken down in 1818 with all that remained of the old fort, to make room

for some new improvements, when its substantial solidity was particularly remarked; but this consolidation is probably the usual effect of time, being generally apparent in all old buildings of long duration.

The government house is the most remarkable public edifice in Calcutta. The lower story forms a rustic basement, with arcades to the building, which is Ionic. On the north side there is a flight of steps, under which carriages drive to the entrance, and on the south side there is a circular colonnade with a dome. The four wings, one at each corner of the building, are connected with it by circular passages, so long as to secure their enjoying the air all round, from whatever quarter the wind blows These wings contain all the private apartments; and in the north east corner is the council room, decorated like the other public rooms, with portraits. The centre of the building contains two uncommonly fine rooms, the lowest is paved with dark grey marble, and supported by doric columns, chunamed, resembling marble. Above this hall is the ball-room, floored with dark polished wood, and supported by Ionic pillars. Both rooms are lighted by a profusion of cut-glass lustres, suspended from a painted ceiling, which having been destroyed by the white ants, was replaced by a plain white ceiling with gilt mouldings.

Besides the government house, the other public buildings are, a town-hall, a court of justice, and two churches of the established religion, and one for the Scotch Presbyterian worship, which is a very handsome edifice: there are also churches for the Portuguese Catholics, another of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian church, many small Hindoo pagodas, Mahomedan mosques, and a Seik temple. The hospital and gaol are to the south of the town. The botanic garden is beautifully situated on the west bank of the river, and gives the name of Garden Reach to a bend of the Hooghly. Above the garden there is an extensive teak plantation, which is not a native of this part of India, but which appears to thrive well. There are several private dock-yards opposite to Calcutta, and others above and below it, on the western bank of the river.

The black town extends along the river to the north, and exhibits a striking contrast to the portion inhabited by Europeans. Persons who have only seen the latter, which is probably the case with a great many individuals, have little conception of the remainder of this externally magnificent city. The streets here are generally narrow, dirty, and unpaved; the houses of two stories are of brick, with flat terraced roofs; but the great majority are mud cottages covered with small tiles, with side walls of mats and bamboos, and other combustible materials, the whole swarming with population within and without. Fires, as may be inferred from the construction, are of frequent occurrence, but do not in the least affect the European quarter, which from the mode of building is quite incombustible. Although brick, mortar, and wood, are not scarce in Calcutta, yet the money sunk in building a house is very considerable, and being a perishable commodity, requiring constant repair, house-rent is proportionally high. The white ants are also so rapid and silent in their destructive operations, that sometimes every beam in a house may be completely excavated internally, while outside it appears perfectly sound.

Fort William stands on the banks of the river about a quarter of a mile below the town, and is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India. It is of an octagon form, five of the sides being regular, while the forms of the other three next the river are according to local circumstances. As no approach by land is to be apprehended on this side, the river coming up to the glacis, it was merely necessary to guard against attack by water, by providing a great superiority of fire, which purpose has been attained by giving the citadel towards the water the form

of a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the course of the river. From these faces the guns continue to bear upon the objects until they approach very near to the city, when they would receive the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This part is likewise defended by adjoining bastions, and a counterscarp that covers them.

The five regular sides are towards the land, the bastions here have all very salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks, extremely spacious, and an inverse double flank at the height of the berme. This double flank would be an excellent defence, and would retard the passages of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed The orillon preserves it from the effect of ricochet shot, and it is not to be seen from any parallel. The berme opposite to the curtain serves as a road to it, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a fausse-braye.

The ditch is dry with a cunette in the middle, which receives the water of the ditch by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered by a large half-moon, without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt; but the faces each mount thirteen pieces of heavy artillery, thus giving to the defence of these ravelins a fire of twenty-six guns. The demi-bastions, which terminate the five regular fronts on each side, are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half-moons, are pierced with thirteen embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts, constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles; the whole is faced and palisadoed with care, kept in admirable condition, and capable of making a vigorous defence against any army, however formidable. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half-moons being extremely acute, project a great way, so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach.

This citadel was commenced by Lord Clive soon after the battle of Plassey, and was intended by him to be complete in every respect; but it has since been discovered, that it is erected on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, that of a tenable post in case of extremity, as the number of troops required to garrison it properly would be able to keep the field. It is capable of containing 15,000 men, and the works are so extensive that 10,000 would be required to defend them efficiently, and from first to last have cost the East-India Company two millions sterling. The works are very little raised above the level of the surrounding country, and of course do not make an imposing appearance, nor are they even perceptible until closely approached. This excites great surprise in natives coming from the interior, who always associate the idea of strength with that of elevation, and usually mistake the barracks for the fort; which, however, only contains buildings that are absolutely necessary, such as the residence of the commandant, quarters for the officers and troops, and the arsenal. The interior of the fort is perfectly open, presenting to the view large grass plots and gravel walks, kept cool by rows of trees, and in the finest order intermixed with piles of balls, bomb-shells, and cannon. Each gate has a house over it, destined for the residence of commandants of corps, and the principal staff officers of the garrison. Between the fort and town an extensive level space intervenes, called the esplanade.

The garrison is usually composed of one or two European regiments, one of artillery with artificers, and workmen for the arsenal. The native corps, amounting to about 4,000 men, are generally cantoned at Barrackpoor, fifteen miles higher up the river, and supply about 1,200 monthly to perform the duty of the fort. The walls in the different outworks of Fort William, some of which are five hun-

dred yards from the river, during the hot season become so brackish, as to be unfit for culinary purposes or for washing; government has in consequence formed an immense reservoir, occupying one of the bastions, to be filled when required with rain water.

Until 1814, it had always been a commonly received opinion, that the soil in the vicinity of Calcutta was particularly moist and full of springs; but the reverse was proved in that year, as after boring to the depth of 140 feet, no springs of any description were perceptible. In 1817, while deepening a tank facing the corner of Esplanade Row, numerous massy trunks of trees were discovered, about sixty feet under the surface, standing in an erect position, with the roots and branches diverging; and similar phenomena occurred in 1822, while deepening the great tank on the Chowringhee road. During the boring operations above-mentioned, a thin stratum of coal and blue clay was reached, fifty-three feet below the surface, facts all tending to prove a great accumulation of alluvial soil. The acknowledged improvement of the climate in and about Calcutta of late years, may be ascribed to the attention paid by the police to a general system of drainage, and to the cutting of broad straight roads through the contiguous woods, in the direction of the prevailing winds, which act as ventilators and purify the air. If some less swampy production could be substituted in the neighbourhood for rice, perhaps a still greater degree of salubrity might be attained. The rainy season at Calcutta usually begins about the 12th of June, and ends about the 14th of October.

Calcutta possesses the advantage of an excellent inland navigation, foreign imports being transported with wonderful facility, on the Ganges and its subsidiary streams, to the north-western quarters of Hindostan, while the valuable productions of the interior are received by the same channels. The quantity of merchandize at all times deposited in Calcutta is enormous, and the amount of native capital employed in the government funds, loans to individuals, internal and external trade is very large. The formerly timid Hindoo now lends money on respondentia, on distant voyages, engages in speculations to remote parts of the world, ensures as an underwriter, and erects indigo works in different parts of the provinces. He has the advantage of trading on his own capital with much greater frugality than a European, and exclusive of his property, enjoys the most perfect toleration of his religion. Besides the government bank there are also three private banks established in Calcutta, which circulate to a considerable amount; and one of these has branches in the Rajeshahy district, with offices at Bauleah, Moorshedabad, and Nattore. It may be computed that the paper circulation in Bengal, from these different sources, exceeds a crore of rupees, or one million sterling.

There are three artificial canals in the vicinity of Calcutta, and it is highly desirable that the water communication with the upper provinces should be uninterrupted, without passing through the unhealthy and dangerous channels of the Sunderbunds; but, owing to the difficulties that beset hydraulic operations in Bengal, no feasible plan has as yet been devised to keep it permanently open. Through these canals, and along the various streams of flowing water, innumerable small craft daily arrive from the interior, loaded with the produce and manufactures of their respective countries, while the shipping collected opposite to the town presents a magnificent spectacle. The river in many places reaches almost to the base of the houses, and the people descend by flights of steps built of brick masonry. Owing to the custom of throwing dead bodies into it, the water is sufficiently dirty; yet it is resorted to in crowds by the natives for the purposes of ablution. The rapidity of the tides up and down causes a constant circulation both of air and water, and tends to prevent the deleterious ef-

fects which would otherwise result from a body of water containing such putrid infusions, were it in the slightest degree stagnant, or even torpid in its motions. In 1826, besides the government steam-vessel the Enterprize, there was the Diana and the Comet of twenty-four horse power, fitted up as packets to proceed up and down the river with passengers, effecting in three weeks what used to occupy as many months. Besides these were two armed government steam-boats getting ready, and one for deepening the river.

There have been various opinions regarding the population of Calcutta, but it does not appear that any very correct census has yet been taken. In 1752 Mr. Holwell estimated the number of houses within the Company's bounds at 51,132, and the constant inhabitants at 409,056 persons, without reckoning the multitude daily coming and going. In 1802 the police magistrates reckoned the population of Calcutta at 600,000; in 1810 Sir Henry Russell, the chief judge, computed the population of the town and its environs at one million; and General Kyd the population of the city alone at between 400,000 and 500,000 inhabitants. The adjacent country is also so densely peopled, that in 1802 the police magistrates were of opinion that Calcutta, with a circuit of twenty-miles, comprehended 2,225,000. In 1819 the School Society estimated the native population of Calcutta at 750,000: yet in 1822 we have the following details.

The returns of the population given for the four divisions are: Christians 13,138; Mahomedans 48,162; Hindoos 118,203; Chinese 414—total 179,917. It has been ascertained that the extent of Calcutta from the Maharatta ditch at the northern extremity, to the circular road at the southern circuit of Chowringhee, is not more than four miles and a-half, and that its average breadth is only one mile and a-half. The lower or south division of the town, which comprizes Chowringhee, is but thinly peopled, the Europ[e]an houses being widely dispersed; [b]ut the portion named Colingah is chie[fly] inhabited by natives. The divisi[on] between Durramtollah and the Bh[...] bazar has a denser population, as [it] comprehends the most thickly inh[a]bited European quarter, besides [a] great many Creole christians. T[he] northern section between the Bh[...] and Mutchua bazars certainly swar[ms] with population, but the upper [di]vision to the north of the Mutch[ua] Bazar is comparatively thinly cover[ed] with houses, presenting towards t[he] north and east extensive garde[ns,] large tanks, and ruinous habitatio[ns.] The number of persons entering t[he] town daily from the suburbs a[nd] across the river, has been estimat[ed] by stationary peons and sircars plac[ed] to count them, at 100,000. Up[on] the whole, therefore, in June 1822, [it] appeared to be the opinion of t[he] magistrates from the returns laid b[e]fore them, that taking the reside[nt] population at about 200,000 person[s,] and those entering the town daily [at] 100,000, the sum total (300,00[0]) would give a tolerably accurate a[p]proximation to the real number.

By some strange arrangement [in] the above calculation, the populati[on] of the suburbs of Calcutta appea[rs] to be excluded and separated fro[m] that of the town, a process which, [if] adopted in England, would redu[ce] London to a very moderate numbe[r;] nor was the simple expedient [of] counting the houses resorted to. S[o] long ago as 1798 these amounted b[y] enumeration to 78,760, and there [is] no reason to suppose they have sin[ce] decreased. A great number of th[e] adult sojourners in Calcutta lea[ve] their families in the adjacent village[s,] so that the proportion of childre[n] within the body of the town is re[]markably small.

The Calcutta society is numerou[s,] gay, and convivial, and the fêtes give[n] by the Governors-general splendi[d] and well arranged. Each of the prin[]cipal officers of government have als[o] their public days for the reception [of] their friends, independent of whic[h]

not a day passes, particularly during the cold season, without several large dinner parties of from thirty to forty. Besides the public subscription assemblies, there are select evening meetings at regular intervals, under the name of conversaziones, accompanied by music, dancing, cards, and other amusements. There is likewise a handsome new theatre, supported principally by amateurs; but although the performances only take place once a fortnight, they are often but thinly attended. Public concerts have also of late been very much in vogue, and, like the theatre, are partly supported by amateur talent.

It is usual to rise early to enjoy the cool air of the morning, which is particularly pleasant before sunrise. Betwixt one and two a meal is taken which is called tiffin, after which many retire to bed for two or three hours. The dinner is commonly after sunset, which necessarily keeps the guests up till midnight. The viands are excellent, and served in great profusion; and as the heat of the climate does not admit of their being kept, great part is at last thrown out to the pariah dogs and the birds of prey. The lower orders of Portuguese, to whom alone they could be serviceable, cannot consume the whole; and the religious prejudices of the native servants prevent their tasting any food prepared by persons not of their caste or religion. To this circumstance is to be attributed the amazing flocks of crows, kites, and vultures, which, undisturbed by man, live together in amicable society, and almost cover the houses and gardens. In their profession of scavengers, the kites and crows are assisted during the day by the voracious stork adjutant, and after sunset by pariah dogs, foxes, and jackals, which then emerge from the jungles, and with their howling make night hideous.

The wines chiefly drank are Madeira and claret: the first, which is excellent, during dinner, the latter afterwards. The claret being medicated for the voyage, is by some considered too strong, and both sorts (more especially Madeira, which is bottled in the country) incur great danger from the contiguity of musk-rats, which impart so disgusting a flavour as to render it undrinkable. As a general maxim the latest imported claret is always the best.

The Calcutta market supplies a great variety of game, such as snipes, wild ducks, teal, and different species of the ortolan tribe, the whole comparatively cheap. The wild venison is much inferior to that of Britain, but the park or stall-fed is equally good. The hare is a very poor creature, and differs in many qualities from that of England, being deficient in size, strength, and swiftness; an observation also applicable to the Bengal fox, which is every way a contemptible animal. The tables of the gentlemen in Calcutta are distinguished by an infinite variety of delicious fruits, procured at a moderate expense, such as pine-apples, plantains, mangoes, pomeloes or shaddocks, melons of all sorts, oranges, custard apples, guavas, peaches, to which of late years strawberries of European, and leechees, loquats, and whampees, of Chinese origin, have been added. But the grand luxury of Calcutta is the mangoe-fish (so named from its appearing during the mangoe season) the taste and flavour of which can never be sufficiently extolled. By the natives they are named tapaswi, or penitent, fish (abbreviated by Europeans to tipsy), from their resembling a class of religious penitents who ought never to shave.

The usual mode of visiting in Calcutta is in palanquins, but many gentlemen have carriages adapted to the climate, and the breed of horses by the government stud and importation has been greatly improved. It is universally the practice to drive out between sunset and dinner, and as it becomes dark servants with torches go out and meet their masters, and run before the carriages with astonishing swiftness, and for a wonderful length of time. It is still the custom, except at public places, or very formal evening-parties, for the gentlemen to

dress in short white cotton jackets, which are well suited to the heat of the climate; but on ceremonious occasions in coats of English broad-cloth.

The British inhabitants stationary in Calcutta and scattered through the provinces, are generally hospitable in the highest degree, and most liberal where their assistance is wanted. When an officer of respectability dies, in either service, leaving a wife or children, a subscription is immediately commenced, which in every instance has proved generous, and not unfrequently has conferred on the parties a degree of affluence that the life of the parent or husband could not for many years have accomplished. Their zeal for the promotion of religion, science, and literature, will be best estimated, after perusal of the following list of learned and benevolent institutions established by them and the government in Calcutta and the upper province, within the last half century.

The Asiatic Society was planned by Sir Wm. Jones on the outward voyage from England, and formed into a regular institution on the 15th January 1784 Its principal object is to concentrate in one focus the valuable knowledge that may be occasionally attained of Asia, or at least to preserve many little tracts and essays, the writers of which might not think them of sufficient importance for separate publication. From this period may be dated the commencement of all accurate information regarding India in general, and Hindostan in particular, which even at the present day is but imperfectly understood by European readers. Recently a medical and a phrenological society have been established, which publish their works periodically: the other learned and benevolent institutions are so numerous in Calcutta and the provinces that nothing more than their names can be given.

The college of Fort William, for finishing the education of the civil servants commenced at Haileybury, the Government Sanscrit College, the Madrissa or Government Mahomedan College, the Vidalaya or Anglo-Indian College, the Benares College, the Agra College, the Government schools at Chinsura and Benares, the free school at Cawnpoor, the school at Ajmeer, the Boglipoor School, the Calcutta Grammar School, the Armenian Academy, the Benevolent Institution, the Parental Academic Institution, the School for Trades, the Committee of Public Instruction, the School-Book Society, the Female Juvenile Society, the Ladies' Society for Native Female Education, the Institution for the Instruction of Indigent Children at Serampoor, the United Charity and Free School.

The religious and charitable institutions are: the Auxiliary Bible Society, the Bible Association, the Committee of the Church Missionary Society, the Church Missionary Association, the Diocesan Committee for promoting Christian Knowledge, the Auxiliary Missionary Society, the Bishop's College, the Bethel Union, the Seaman's Friend Society, the Military Orphan Society, the Military Widows' Fund, Lord Clive's Fund, the King's Military Fund, the Marine Pension Fund, the Civil Fund, the Mariners' and General Widows' Fund, the Presidency General Hospital, the Native Hospital, the Hospital for Native Lunatics, the Government Establishment for Vaccination, the School for Native Doctors, the Charitable Fund for the Relief of Distressed Europeans, the European Female Orphan Society.

In 1825 the following newspapers were published in Calcutta, *viz.* "The John Bull," "the Bengal Harcurrah and Scotsman," daily papers; "the Government Gazette," and "the India Gazette," twice a week, and "the Bengal Weekly Messenger," published on Sunday. The native newspapers then were the "Merat ul Akbar," the "Jami Jehan Nama," "the Sungbaud Cowmuddy," and "the Sumochar Chundrica," all weekly; the two first in Persian, and the two last in Bengalese. In 1826 two

additional Bengalese weekly newspapers were added to those before existing.

The government grants a princely allowance to their civil servants; but, large as it is, it does not always suffice for the expenses of the juniors, many of whom on their arrival set up an extravagant establishment of horses, carriages, and servants, and thereby involve themselves in embarrassments at a very early period of their lives. To support this profuse mode of living they are obliged to borrow from their dewan, generally a monied native, who seeks the advancement of his family through the influence of his debtors, whose extravagance and dissipation he encourages until their difficulties are almost inextricable. While the civilian remains in an inferior situation, the debt to the dewan continues to accumulate, and when higher appointments are at length reached, it requires years to clear off the incumbrances of his juvenile thoughtlessness. Of late these responsible situations have been rendered of still more difficult attainment, by the determination of government to regard extravagance as an essential drawback from the claims of all candidates for offices of trust. Those who are incapable of exercising self-denial at the commencement of their career, have only themselves to blame if they are denied that confidence in the strength and integrity of their characters, which every one seeking important public trusts ought to possess; nor can the government sacrifice the duty it owes to the people, through any consideration for the interest of incautious servants. Instances of this species of insanity (for it deserves no other name) are now rare, compared with what they were at an earlier period of the British acquisitions; and, notwithstanding the multiplied temptations, a very great majority of those who arrive at the higher stations wholly escape the contagion, and are distinguished by the most unsullied integrity of character. Whenever a deviation has occurred, it may invariably be traced to the imprudence of the young man on his first arrival, and his subsequent slavery to his dewan.

Calcutta is in every point of view a new city, almost as much so with regard to its native gentry as to its European population. The great native families, who now contribute to its splendour, are of very recent origin; indeed, scarcely ten could be named who possessed wealth before the rise of the English power, it having been accumulated under our sovereignty, chiefly in our service, and entirely through our protection.

The British merchants are a numerous and respectable body of men, many of whom have acquired large fortunes by their industry and enterprize, and conduce essentially to the prosperity of the province. Here they display a liberality in their manner of living, seldom equalled in other parts of the world; and their acts of charity and munificence to persons in distress, and generosity and forbearance towards each other, have perhaps never been surpassed.

The Armenians were formerly a numerous and affluent class of foreign traders, but latterly this nation has rather been on the decline. The number of Greek merchants is not considerable, whereas the Portuguese houses of agency rank next, in point of number, to the English. A very considerable number of the progeny of that nation reside in Calcutta and its environs, and have approximated very closely to the natives in manners and appearance. Among the various classes of money changers, no mention is made of the Jews, few of whom for many centuries have settled in Hindostan; and Calcutta is, probably, the only very opulent town that is almost wholly without them. The practices and occupations they follow in Europe are here engrossed by the native Sirkars, banyans, and writers, who are quite a match for any Jew. The shops of these petty traffickers, although better than their houses, are mean and

disagreeable; the European shops are singularly splendid. Some of the native traders have made or inherited large fortunes, and the public apartments of a few are furnished after the European fashion, with elegant chandeliers, pier glasses, couches, chests of drawers, writing-desks, and two or three hundred chairs; while in the other rooms the images of their gods are seen decorated with gilding, red paint, and precious stones. Some have taken to the drinking of tea, some keep English coaches and equipages, and one individual was noted for having also an English coachman.

Without being attached to some department of the service, or trained up to some mechanical trade, there is little hope of prosperity to a young man migrating on chance from Europe. Here all the inferior situations of clerks, overseers, &c. are necessarily occupied by the natives, and it is by these gradations in Europe, that young men rise to opulence in the commercial world. It is scarcely in the power, even of a governor-general, to assist a person of respectable connexions who does not belong to the service, or one of the liberal professions; and, although the climate of the province is not essentially improved, Europeans are now much better acquainted with the means of counteracting its effects, and deaths are far from being so frequent as formerly. Regularity of living, avoiding too much exposure to the sun, and all extremes, even of abstinence, are much more practised by the modern inhabitants than they were by the earlier adventurers; vacancies consequently in any line or trade are of much rarer occurrence.

It is in Calcutta that the effect of the intercourse between Europeans and the natives is in any degree visible, as there alone an indistinct sort of link may be discerned between the rulers and the people. The lowest and poorest Europeans, and the native-born Christians and Portuguese, do in some slight degree, mix with the natives in their ordinary concerns and amusements, just sufficient to produce a very inconsiderable change in their manners and character. The establishment of the supreme court, and the intercourse between the natives and the lowest officers of that court, must be considered another cause of the same nature; but by these causes their morals have not been in the slightest respect improved; on the contrary, they have learned all the mean arts of European chicanery, imposture, and litigiousness, in addition to their aboriginal stock, without acquiring a particle of plain dealing, firmness, independence of spirit, or useful knowledge. They appear to imbibe only those principles of the European character which tend to impair the mildness and simplicity of their own; and whenever, in the behaviour of the natives, insolence, ill-nature, coarseness, brutality, or drunkenness (qualities hostile to their national character) are observed, the change may be invariably traced to their intercourse with low Europeans

The supreme court of judicature in Calcutta consists of a chief justice and two puisne judges, nominated to their situations in India by the king. Its cognizance extends to all British subjects, that is, natives, or the descendants of natives of the British isles in India, and to all inhabitants within the parochial limits of Calcutta, as enclosed by the Maharatta ditch, beyond which, however, the suburbs now extend. In suits to which the natives are parties, the judges are enjoined by act of parliament to respect the usages of the country; in matters of inheritance or contract, the rule of decision is to be the law acknowledged by the litigant parties. Should only one of the parties be a Mahomedan or Hindoo, it is to be the law acknowledged by the defendant. Criminal offences are tried by a jury consisting exclusively of British subjects; in trials of a civil nature, the judge decides both the law and the fact. The supreme court also tries criminal charges against the government servants, and civil suits

in which the government or its servants are concerned.

Little morality is learned in a court of justice; and, notwithstanding the severity of the police and of the English laws, it appears probable that the morals of the native inhabitants are worse in Calcutta than in the provincial districts. This is not to be attributed solely to the size, population, and indiscriminate society of the capital, but in part to the supreme court, every native connected with which appearing to have his morals contaminated by the intimacy. In mentioning this evil, it is not intended in the remotest degree to attribute it to any individual, or body of men, or to speak with disrespect of the institution itself; but merely to mention a fact, which has probably been remarked by every judge who ever sat on the bench. Within the last forty years the natives have attained a sort of legal knowledge, as it is usually denominated, consisting of a skill in the arts of collusion, intrigue, subornation and perjury, which enables them to perplex and baffle the magistrate with infinite facility.

But notwithstanding the temptations to which the natives are exposed, it is surprising how seldom thefts and burglaries are committed on the property of Europeans, who seldom in Bengal take any precautions to prevent their occurrence. In some families thirty or forty domestics, many of them natives of distant provinces, sleep all night within the enclosure, or in the passages and verandas of the house, where every door is open, and detection almost impossible. Owing to their extreme timidity, they seldom venture to rob openly or on a large scale, preferring a more indirect and complicated system of small pilfering and cheating.

Besides the supreme court, Calcutta is the head-quarters of a court of appeal and circuit, which comprehends the following districts, *viz.* Burdwan, the Jungle Mahals, Midnapoor, Cuttack, Jessore, Nuddea, Hooghly, and the twenty-four pergunnahs.—(*Public Documents MS. and printed, Sir Henry Strachey, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Tennant, Milburn, Harrington, M. Graham, Major Rennell, &c.*)

CALICOULAN.—A town in the province of Travancore, 116 miles N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 11′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E.

CALIADEH.—A village in the province of Malwa, situated on the river Sipra, five miles north from the city of Oojein. This place is remarkable for a lofty, heavy and whimsical structure, called the water-palace, built on an insular eminence in the channel of the Sipra. This edifice, of which several very inaccurate and exaggerated descriptions have been given (believed to have been constructed by the Mahomedan kings of Malwa) is entirely devoid of architectural attractions, and its quadrangular tank of masonry in the bed of the Sipra, including a terrace and two square pavilions with a low arched bridge of communication, in no respect corresponds with the fanciful pictures that have been given of them.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CALICUT (*Calicodu*).—A subdivision of the Malabar province, extending along the sea-coast between the parallels of 10° and 12° north lat., and one of the principal countries of that extraordinary Hindoo race, the Nairs, the Calicut Raja (the Zamorin of Europeans) being one of their most respected chiefs. By his own tribe, and the other natives, he is styled the Tamuri Raja. All the males of the family are called Tamburans, and the females Tamburetties. All the children of every Tamburetti are entitled to these appellations, and rise according to seniority to the highest dignities that belong to the family. These ladies are generally impregnated by Nambouries (Brahmins) and sometimes by the higher rank of Nairs; but the sacred character of the Namburies always insures them a preference. They live in the houses of their brothers, and never have any intercourse with their husbands, which would be reckoned scandalous.

The oldest man of the family by

the female line is the Tamuri Raja, or Zamorin, and is regularly crowned. He pretends to be of higher rank than the Brahmins, and inferior only to the invisible gods, which pretensions are admitted by his subjects, but held to be absurd and abominable by the Brahmins, who treat him as a sudra. The Zamorin, although of a caste inferior to the Cochin Raja, and possessed of less extensive dominions, was commonly reckoned of equal rank, which is attributed to the superior prowess of his people. In 1767, when Hyder invaded Malabar, the Cochin Raja quietly submitted to pay tribute, while the pride of the Zamorin refused any kind of submission, and after an unavailing resistance, being made prisoner, set fire to the house in which he was confined, and burned along with it. Several of his personal attendants, who were accidently excluded when he shut the door, afterwards threw themselves into the flames and perished with their master.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Calicut.—A town in the province of Malabar, of which it was the former capital, 103 miles S.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 15′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, arrived at Calicut on the 18th of May, A.D. 1498, ten months and two days after their departure from Lisbon. In 1509 Don Fernando Continho, marechal of Portugal, attacked Calicut with 3,000 troops, but was slain in the assault, and his army repulsed with much slaughter. In 1766 it was invaded and conquered by Hyder, who enlarged and improved the fort; but Tippoo afterwards destroyed both fort and town, removing the inhabitants to Nellura, which he called Furruckabad, being, like all the Mahomedans of India, a great changer of the old Pagan names. Fifteen months after this compulsory migration the English conquered the province, and the inhabitants returned with great joy to their old residence. The town in 1800 contained above 5,000 houses, and was rapidly improving; the inhabitants, chiefly Moplays, named Chulias among the Eastern Islands. The principal exports are pepper, teak, sandal-wood, cardamoms, coir, cordage, and wax. Travelling distance from Seringapatam, 129 miles southwest.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilks, Bruce, Rennell, &c.*)

Calicoote.—A town in the northern circars, twenty-one miles N. from Ganjam; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E.

Calingapatam.—A small seaport in the northern circars, sixteen miles E from Cicacole; lat. 18° 15′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E. In 1820 this place consisted of about thirty cottages, clustered round the master-attendant's bungalow; yet there is a European burying-ground here, and small coasting vessels are still built and repaired in mud docks. The river Paddair joins the sea near Calingapatam, by a debouchure almost a mile wide, which is with difficulty forded.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Callacoil.—A town in the Carnatic division of Marawa, sixty miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E.

Callacaud.—A town in the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, thirty-nine miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 36′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E.

Callao.—An island in the Eastern seas lying opposite to the coast of Cochin-China, and about eight miles east of a considerable river, on the banks of which stands the town of Faifoo, and not far from the harbour of Turon; lat. 15° 53′ N. In length it may be estimated at five miles by two the average breadth. This is a picturesque island of considerable altitude, one of the mountains exceeding 1,400 feet; but it is only inhabited on the south-west coast, where there is a beautiful spot of about 200 acres, covered with neat houses, temples, clusters of trees, and small hillocks covered with shrubs.—(*Staunton, &c.*)

Callianee (*Calyani*).—A strong hilly country, extending along the sea-

coast of the Aurungabad province, opposite to the island of Bombay, bounded on the east by the western ghauts. The principal towns are Callianee, Bassein, Panwell, Chowl, Rajapoor, Dassgong, and Mhar; the largest streams, the Tanja, Cailas, the Bhagirati, and Savatri. When conquered from the Peshwa, the towns were described as large and well-peopled; in 1820, however, the villages were generally small, thinly scattered, and of a poor appearance, consisting principally of clusters of ill-built and rudely thatched huts.—(*Public MS. Documents, Fullarton, &c.*)

CALLIANEE.—The capital of the above district, situated in the province of Aurungabad, on the south side of the Cailas river, thirty miles N.E. from Bombay; lat. 19° 15′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. This town sustained many sieges during the wars between the Moguls and Maharattas, and is surrounded by ruins of various sorts. It is, notwithstanding all its vicissitudes, still a populous town, and carries on some traffic in cocoa-nuts, oil, coarse cloths, brass, and earthenware.—(*M. Graham, Rennell, &c.*)

CALLIANY (*Calyani*).—A small division of the province of Beeder, bounded on the north by the Tierna river, and on the east by the Beeder district. The town of Calliany, from which it derives its name, stands in lat. 17° 50′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E., thirty-five miles west from the city of Beeder.

CALLIANDROOG (*Calyanadurga*).—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, forty-two miles S. by E. from Bellary; lat. 13° 42′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

CALLINGER (*Calmajara*).—A town and fortress in the Allahabad province, district of Bundelcund; lat. 25° 6′ N., lon. 80° 25′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Callinger is a stone fort, situated on a lofty mountain. Here is an idol named Kelbihroop, eighteen cubits in height; at the distance of twenty coss from the fort husbandmen sometimes find small diamonds, and in the neighbourhood is an iron mine."

The summit of the table-land of Callinger is at least 1,200 feet in elevation above the neighbouring plains, and the base of the mountain covers above ten miles in circumference. At the foot of the northern front of the hill stands the town, which in 1820 was still of considerable size, although of a ruinous exterior and unfortified. The walled plain comprehends the whole summit of the hill, and contained the public buildings, the quarters for the garrison, and several large tanks, always filled with water. This plain, or interior plateau, is almost five miles in circumference, and completely encompassed by a wall of Mahomedan construction, at some places elevated above the level of the summit, and others on a level with it; the great body of this immense mural rampart is composed of rough, uncut and unplastered stones, and its construction must have required both great time and labour. The fortress of Callinger resembles in its situation that of Gualior, but surpasses it both in size and strength; it was taken by the British in 1812, after a bloody siege, and in 1820 a party of sappers and miners were sent there from Calcutta, to destroy the works and dismantle the fortress.

CALOWR.—See CAHLORE.

CALPEE.—See KALPEE.

CALPENTEEN.—A peninsula, or neck of land, which extends almost sixty miles along the west coast of Ceylon, and during the north-east monsoon becomes an island. The surface is level, the soil sandy, and covered with cocoa-nut trees, the fruit of which is here the chief article of food. The population is considerable and a small trade in the export of salted fish and fish roes is carried on to Columbo, from whence rice is brought in large canoes, made from the trunk of a single tree brought from the continent.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

CALSI.—A large village in Northern Hindostan, situated four miles

above the confluence of the Tonse and Jumna, within the mountains of Jaunsar, of which district it is the capital; lat. 30° 31′ N. It is also a mart of trade between the mountaineers and people of the plains.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Caltura.—A town and small fort in the island of Ceylon, twenty-six miles south from Columbo; lat. 6° 34′ N., lon. 79° 53′ E. Here, as at every village on the west coast of Ceylon, arrack is distilled from the juice of the palmira and cocoa-nut trees, and is an article of considerable traffic. The travelling distance from Columbo is twenty-eight miles, by an inland navigation consisting of rivers connected by canals.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

Calygong Hills.—A range of hills in the Deccan, which separate the Gundwana province from that of Candeish, and situated between the Tuptee and Nerbudda rivers.

Calymere Point.—A promontory on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, near to which some pagodas are visible from the sea; lat. 10° 18′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E.

Camao.—A town in the province of Cambodia, near to its southern extremity, mostly inhabited by Cochin Chinese, lat. 8° 50′ N., lon. 104° 56′ E.

Cambay (*Cambaja*).—An ancient city in the province of Gujerat, situated at the upper part of the Gulf of Cambay, and mentioned by Marco Polo about A.D. 1295. Lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 72° 48′ E. Near the town the tides rush with much turbulence, and rise and fall forty feet, so that at high water ships can anchor near the town, but at low water the channel becomes dry, and vessels must lie in the mud until it returns. When Ahmedabad flourished as the capital of an opulent and independent state, Cambay was its sea-port, and experienced great commercial prosperity; but it decayed with its metropolis, and is now much reduced. Various Hindoo and Mahomedan edifices, however, are still to be seen, and the ruins of many more, especially of the Jain sect, which appears at one period to have been predominant in this neighbourhood. In a Jain subterranean temple at Cambay, in 1780, there were two massy statues of their deities, one white and the other black. The inscription on the first intimated that it was the image of Parswanatha, a Jain deity, or rather deified saint, carved and consecrated in the reign of the Emperor Acber, A.D. 1602. The black one had merely the date inscribed, with the names of the two Banyans who brought it there.

The surrounding country is pleasant, and when properly cultivated, yields ample returns of wheat and Hindostany grains, indigo, cotton, and oil seeds; but it has been long managed in an indolent and slovenly manner. It is said that in the city and adjacent country there were formerly 50,000 wells and tanks; but the inhabitants, to prevent the Maharatta armies encamping in their vicinity, drained most of the tanks, and filled many of the wells up. Cambay formerly exported fabrics of silk, chintz, gold stuffs, cornelian stones, and indigo; but these manufactures have gradually dwindled away, and the staples now are wheat and other grains to Bombay. The silversmiths here still emboss very neatly. Their process is to fill the cup, watch-case, box, or other vessel with gum-lac, after which they punch with a small chisel the figures of flowers, elephants, and such different varieties of birds and animals as are required. The Persian language was formerly spoken here in great purity, on account of the number of emigrants who settled here during the civil wars of Persia, and also many of Nadir Shah's soldiers, who deserted and retired with their plunder to Cambay. In 1780 this city and territory were governed by a native prince named Mohmaun Khan, who paid a heavy tribute to the Maharattas, whose Peshwa exercised a divided jurisdiction, both civil and criminal. Since the fall of that potentate these rights have devolved

to the British government, to whom the present nabob pays tribute, and acknowledges his subordination.—(*Forbes, Drummond, Wilford, Public MS. Documents, Elmore, Mallet, Rennell, &c.*)

CAMBAY (*Gulf of*).—A gulf on the north-west coast of India, which penetrates about 150 miles into the province of Gujerat. The tides in this arm of the sea run with amazing velocity, and at low water leave the bottom of the gulf dry from lat. 22° 3′ N. to Cambay town. No vessel attempts to go above Gongway in one tide from Jumbosier: for if they cannot get into Cambay creek they must return to Gongway, which is five leagues distant. In many places the current is so rapid, that if a ship takes the ground she immediately upsets, and in all probability the whole crew perish. It is supposed the depth of water in this gulf has been progressively decreasing for more than two centuries. Fifteen miles east of Cambay city the bed of the gulf is reduced to six miles in breadth, and is dry at ebb-tide; but the crossing either on horse or foot is dangerous, the tide rushing furiously in, like the bore in the Calcutta river.—(*Elmore, Drummond, &c.*)

CAMBING.—A small island about thirty miles in circumference, lying off the north coast of Timor, between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude.

CAMBODIA (*Camboja*).—A country of India beyond the Ganges, extending from Cape St. James in the China sea, to near the same parallel in the Gulf of Siam, thus comprehending the whole peninsula of Cambodia. In the interior, and along the great river of Cambodia, it stretches much further, reaching as far north as lat. 14°. The whole coast from Camao point, the southern extremity, up to the Cape Liaut of the Europeans, is an uninterrupted archipelago of beautiful islands, which appear like the tops of a chain of mountains, some above 1,000 feet high, extending along the coast of Cambodia, while the continent is low alluvial land, without hill or elevation. Among these islets the tides, which are strong and irregular, rise to unusual heights for such latitudes, in some places above fifteen feet. A mud flat commences at Cambodia point, and gradually increases in breadth from the land, until it terminates at the mouth of the Donnai river, where it spreads out to sea for above four leagues, the southern extremity of Asia here sinking into the ocean by very slow gradations.

The Cambodia river is said to have its source from a lake within the Chinese province of Yunan, and to be navigable for boats before it enters Laos, between the twenty-second and twenty-third degrees of north latitude. It is evidently one of the largest rivers of Asia, with a course (if the above conjecture be correct) of 1,500 miles, including windings; but it probably does not deliver to the ocean so large a body of water as the Ganges. It flows through the territories of Laos and Cambodia, joining the sea by three mouths about lat. 10° N.

The vegetable productions of this province are the same as those of the neighbouring countries of Siam and Ava. The colouring matter named gamboge derives its name from hence, being the concrete resinous juice of certain trees found here of a superior quality, but produced likewise in other parts of India. At present the exportable commodities are gamboge, cardamoms, eagle-wood, areca, ivory, sticklac, hides, horns, bones, dried fish, dye-woods, and timber for domestic and naval purposes. The quantity of teak-wood, however, is very small; the sort most used for ship and house-building and the artillery, is called in the native language sao, and is strong and durable, but its botanical character has not yet been ascertained. A hard black wood named quo, of large dimensions, and susceptible of a fine polish, is much used in cabinet work. This province also yields the Portuguese rose-wood,

which the Chinese export in considerable quantities. The Chinese and Macao Portuguese carry on a small traffic, importing silk goods, china, and lacquered ware, tea, sweetmeats, tin and tutenague, and exporting dried fish and the articles above-enumerated in return. Chantiban is one of the principal trading ports of Cambodia, and a considerable emporium for cardamoms and pepper. It stands a short distance inland, up a river only navigable for small boats. Cancao, or Athien, on the frontier of Cochin China, is the next mart of importance, and is also situated up a river which cannot be ascended by large vessels.

The Khomen language is used by a nation of that name who reside on the banks of the Mekon, or river of Cambu Cha't, or Cambodia. The Khomen are reckoned an ancient and learned people, and were formerly subdued by the T'hay J'hay, or ancient Siamese race. The modern T'hay, or Siamese, still denominate the Pali character Nangou Khom, or the Khomen letter, from this nation. They are not, however, supposed to have existed as a polished people so early as the Law (Laos), but are believed to have derived their origin from the warlike race of mountaineers named Kho, the Gueos of the Portuguese historians. The name of Camboja is often mentioned in the Ramayuna and other ancient Hindoo poems, where its horses are celebrated; but the designation probably refers to Cambay in Gujerat, as an intercourse is described as then subsisting between Camboja and Oude, the capital of the great Rama.

With the present condition of the interior we are still but little acquainted, and its religion can be only conjectured. Surrounded on all sides by nations professing the doctrines of Buddha, the majority of the inhabitants are also probably votaries of the same prophet. The accounts we have of the mountaineers assimilate them to the savage aborigines found all over the continent of India, where the Hindoo and Mahomedan religions have not penetrated, or made any lasting impression. The most numerous portion of the inhabitants on the sea-coast are native Cambodians; but the Anam, or Cochin Chinese, compose the governing class. The aborigines to the west of the great river, and bordering on Laos, are termed Mew.

In A.D. 1590 the king of Cambodia sent a mission to the governor of the Philippines, begging his assistance against the king of Siam. In 1820 this province was divided into three parts: one tributary to Siam, another to Cochin China, and a third independent. The two first-named divisions comprehend all the sea-coast; the third is several days' journey up the great river Cambodia. Its capital, named Panompin, is said to be populous, and inhabited besides natives by a considerable number of genuine Chinese. In 1819 the king of Cochin China interdicted to foreigners all direct commerce with his portion of Cambodia, having proclaimed Saigon the emporium of that province, and of all the southern divisions of Cochin China.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Leyden, Lieut. White, Crawfurd, Staunton, De Bissachere, &c.*)

Cambodia.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, the ancient capital of the preceding province, but now in a decayed condition; lat. 13° N., lon. 104° 35′ E. By the Birmans it is named Lowaick, and stands on the river of Cambodia or Mekon, about 150 miles from the sea. It does not appear to have been visited since the time of the Portuguese ascendancy, and before the fervour of their missionaries had abated.—See also Panompin, the name of the modern capital.

Camigten.—A small island, one of the Philippines, about ten miles in length by four the average breadth, situated due north of the Luzon. There is some trade carried on here for wax, gold, cocoa-nuts, and cassia.

Camlapoor.—A town in the province of Bejapoor contiguous to the ruins of Bijanagur, of which it pro-

bably at one period formed an integral part; the fortified pass through the mountains, which was the barrier of that ancient city, lying about two miles to the south of Camlapoor; lat. 15° 11′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E. Near to this place there are two magnificent Hindoo temples, greatly resembling the principal pagodas of Bijanagur; also a mud fort, with a ditch and glacis, which has been a place of some strength, but is now no longer occupied. The traveller from the north observes here, for the first time, the mud cottages painted with alternate stripes of red and white, according to the prevailing practice in the villages south of the Krishna. The old Raja of Bijanagur resides principally at Camlapoor.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CAMPAR.—A trading town on the north coast of Sumatra, principality of Siak, mentioned by the early Portuguese writers, and still one of the most flourishing Malay settlements in the straits of Malacca. Its principal export to Singapoor is coffee, which is annually increasing. Some part is grown in the neighbourhood, but much the largest proportion is brought down from the mountains of Menancabow, where it was cultivated for the first time about fifteen years ago.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

CAMPOULY.—A small village, with a fine tank and temple, situated at the foot of the great Bhore ghaut, in the province of Aurungabad, division of Callianee, about forty-eight miles E.S.E. from Bombay.

CAMROOP (*Camarupa, the aspect of desire*).—This was formerly an extensive Hindoo geographical division, extending from the river Korotoya, where it joined the ancient kingdom of Matsya, to the Dekkor basini, a river of Assam, which enters the Brahmaputra a short distance to the east of the eastern Kamakhya, said to be fourteen days' journey by water above Jorhaut, lately the modern capital. On the north Camroop extended to the first range of Bootan hills; the southern boundary was where the Lukhiya river separates from the Brahmaputra, where it adjoined the country called Bangga (Bengal). According to this description, Camroop, besides a large division of Assam (which still retains the name), included the whole of the modern divisions of Rungpoor and Rangamatty, a portion of the Mymunsing district, and Silhet, together with Munipoor, Gentiah, and Cachar.

The early history of this region is involved in obscurity, but it has the reputation of having been in early times a sort of Paphian land, the seat of promiscuous pleasures: which description the loose manners of its modern inhabitants, as may be seen under the article Rungpoor, tend strongly to justify. Besides this, a mysterious awe hangs over it, as having been the grand source of the Tantra system of magic, the doctrines of which permit many indulgences to new converts, and enable the Brahmins to share sensual gratifications, from which they would otherwise be excluded. The Tantras chiefly inculcate the worship of irascible female spirits, whose hostility is to be appeased by bloody sacrifices, to be eaten afterwards, in consequence of which the Tantras are held in great estimation by the Brahmins of Bengal. Jadoo, or witchcraft, is supposed to be still generally understood by the old women, who are employed by the young to secure the affection of their paramours.

At present, however, the Brahmins of this region are not considered very profound conjurors, although formerly held in great estimation for their knowledge of the black art. There are still some pretenders, and rich people sometimes give five and six rupees for casting out a devil. In some divisions of Camroop few have of late been affected in this way, owing, it is said, to the great importation of learned men from the south; in others, the facility with which the demon allows himself to be expelled is attributed to his being of a low caste. The bites of serpents are cured in the name of Bishuhari, and

the small-pox in that of Sitola, but other diseases and devils are removed in that of Kamakhya, and occasionally of the old goddess of the Teesta river.

In the north-eastern extremity beyond Rangamatty the temples are miserable huts, and few are sufficiently high to admit any thing larger than a goat or a pig. The only two of celebrity in the neighbourhood are Kamakhya, and one at Haldola dedicated to Rama, both of which have endowments in land. Among the natives of Camroop the village gods are the principal objects of worship, as by offering sacrifices they have an excuse for eating meat. By the purer tribes of Bengal the household gods are more followed, and most of them have also salgrams. The houses of such persons may be discriminated from those of the aborigines by their having in the vicinity a rude heap of earth for receiving the sacred stone (the salgram) on festivals.

The chief object of worship and veneration among the Mahomedans, in which they are joined by many Hindoos, is Ismael Gazi, a conquering saint, who first reduced the country to the faith of the Koran. He lies buried at Goraghaut, but several precious relics are said to have been buried in Camroop, over which monuments have been erected. This holy person issued three orders to the zemindars and to the officers employed under them in the collection of the revenue; 1stly, never to sleep in bedsteads; 2dly, not to beat the inhabitants; and 3dly, not to suffer milk to be adulterated with water. At present the two last are very generally disregarded, and the first evaded, which is done by sleeping on a bed with a bottom of plank, it being supposed that the saint's prohibition was confined to a bedstead with a bottom of cords.

Although Camroop is considered by the natives as very distinct from Bengal, and although all its original tribes have features indicative of a common origin with the Chinese, and the more eastern races of the ancient continent, yet the language of Bengal, in different stages of purity, prevails almost universally. The dialects differ very considerably at short distances, and are reckoned six in number. There is great reason, however, to believe that it is not the original language of Camroop, and that it did not make any great progress till of late. It does not appear, however, that the ancient Hindoos had any record of a kingdom intervening between Camroop and Assam. The modern Hindoos are of opinion that Camroop is bounded by Chin, by which, however, is probably meant the country between Hindostan and China. According to Abul Fazel, the Chinese empire is the Mahachin of the Hindoos. Until quite recently, the Birman empire of Ava in fact separated Camroop from the Chinese empire.

This ancient province was invaded by Mahomed Bukhtyar Khiljee, in A.D. 1204, immediately after the Mahomedan conquest of Bengal; but after losing nearly the whole of his army, he was compelled to retreat. From the prodigious ruins of public works still extant, and the magnificent public roads that had been constructed, it is probable that this remote corner of India in ancient times enjoyed a superior form of government to any that it has since experienced. Between the date last-mentioned and the reign of Acber, the Musulmauns of Bengal made many attempts to accomplish the subjugation of Camroop, but were invariably frustrated. The mode of defence adopted by the princes of the country, when attacked, was to retire with their families and effects into the jungles, until the violence of the rains, the inundation of the country, and the pestilential effects of an unwholesome climate, compelled the invaders to capitulate, or to attempt a destructive retreat. At length, about A.D. 1603, towards the conclusion of Acber's reign, the Moguls took permanent possession of the western portion of Camroop, which they partitioned in four divisions, viz.

Ootrecul, Dukhincul, Bengal Bhumi, and Camroop Proper.

An officer, with the title of nabob, continued to reside at Rangamatty with some troops; but it seems to have been the wish of the Delhi sovereigns to encourage the growth of reeds and forests, to serve as a boundary against the incursions of the Assamese, and henceforward the tribute paid by the native chiefs in this quarter was little more than nominal. Left to themselves, the petty chiefs would have been entirely uninterrupted in the process of cutting each other's throats and reducing the country to a desert, if they had not been assisted in the task by the Bootanners, who subdued several, and continued advancing until they were met by the gigantic power of the Company, which suppressed all rival invasions.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Camufaud.—A town in the northern Circars, district of Guntoor, forty-seven miles north from Angoli; lat. 15° 56′ N., lon. 79° 55′ E.

CANARA.

A large province on the west coast of India, extending from the 12th to the 15th degrees of north latitude. To the north it has Goa and the district of Gunduck in Bejapoor; to the south the Malabar province; on the east Mysore and the Balaghaut ceded territories; and on the west the sea. It extends 180 miles along the seacoast, and in 1807, according to Mr. Thackeray, contained 4,622 square miles below the ghauts, 2,758 (including Bilghy, Soonda, and Soopah) above the ghauts: making a total of 7,380 square miles of wild, rocky, and uneven country. The tract distinguished in our maps as the province of Canara, by a fatality unexampled in history, neither is nor ever was known by that name to the people of the country, or of any part of India. Voyagers and Mahomedan strangers, finding that it was a dependency on the kingdom of Canara, and probably that the officers of government spoke that language, gave the name of Canara to the division called by the natives Tulava, which name, however, applies more particularly to the country north of the river Chandraghiri. Canara is a corruption of Carnata, the table-land above the ghauts. The British province thus named is composed of the maritime countries of Tulava, Haiga, and the adjacent parts of Malabar, and the Hindoo Kankana (the Concan). It was transferred to the British government in 1799, and now forms one of the collectorships under the Madras presidency, but in geographical description is usually distinguished as north and south Canara, under which heads further topographical details will be found.

In this province the western ghauts in some places approach near to the sea; in others, branches of rocky hills stretch from the ghauts towards the sea, occupying great part of the surface. The village lands, however, are well cultivated with rice, especially those through which a river runs, or an arm of the sea; but where there is no inland navigation, improvement is backward. The rugged surface of the country renders it necessary to transport the produce on the heads of the peasantry, bullocks being seldom used. The climate and soil of Canara are much like those of Malabar. The rains set in about the middle of May; fall heaviest, with squalls of wind, in July; and continue to the end of September, during which season all trade is interrupted. Ships quit the coast and insurances are void until the end of September; on shore, during the interval, work of every sort is executed within doors, and bargains and accounts are settled. As in Malabar, the natives here live mostly every man under his own tree; but in the interior there are some villages, peopled chiefly by Brahmins and shopkeepers. The roads in Canara are passable, though inferior to the military highways in Malabar, but they are less necessary, as the trade is greatly conveyed by water, the population and cultivation following the courses of the rivers,

As the natives do not require roads, it would be oppressive to compel the inhabitants to make them, as government alone would benefit by their construction, in facilitating the progress of troops, stores, and travellers.

The soil of Canara is red and gravelly on the high grounds, sandy near the sea, and in valleys well adapted for the cultivation of rice; but it is the climate rather than the soil that renders the province so productive. The crops are usually watered by the rains, but streams are sometimes dammed up to preserve the water for the late crops. The land is divided into two classes: the first is capable of producing two, or even three crops of rice; the second a crop of rice and one of some other coarser grain; the third a crop of rice only. Manure is scarce, and the incessant wet and want of good pasture so deteriorate the cattle, that they are not much taller than long-legged goats. The cultivators sow and plant rice from May to July, and reap from September to December inclusive. An acre of good land requires by computation eighty-eight seer of seed, and may produce 1,269 seers. There are cocoa-nut gardens in Canara, but not so many as in Malabar, rice being justly thought the surest and most valuable production. Some sandy ground along the beach and banks of rivers is, when not too wet, peculiarly adapted for the growth of cocoa-nuts. In such situations the trees are planted either in a scattered manner, or in regular gardens, where they have been left untaxed, and ought to remain so. When a proprietor plants a garden, he usually manages it himself, letting off a few trees to a toddy drawer, who pays a pagoda annually for ten, twelve, or fifteen trees. Good trees are said to yield from fifty to one hundred nuts annually, in four crops; weak trees less than fifty nuts. Betel and pepper are produced above the western ghauts, where the soil and climate are more fitted for their production than in Malabar.

The greater proportion of the lands in Canara are private property, and original inscriptions on stone and copper establish the antiquity of the institution. These consist of the donations of ancient princes to pagodas, &c., granting the land-tax accruing from certain lands and villages, and thus transferring it from the treasury to the individual specified; but the property in the soil was not conferred, because not claimed or possessed by the sovereign. In instances where the absolute property in the soil is granted, the deed of gift expressly mentions the prior purchase of the right. These inscriptions on stone and copper are found in every part of Canara, and in every pagoda, and complete investigation of them would tend to illustrate the ancient history of Canara, perhaps of India. The different princes of Bednore, Bijanagur, and even of Mysore, seem never to have questioned the general rights of the people, although arbitrary assessments, and particular acts of oppression, may have rendered private estates of less value. The culture bestowed by the land-owners on their estates, proves that they always confided in the justness of their title; and in fact that they have been chiefly rendered valuable by the pains devoted to their improvement. Land is frequently pledged, and is, generally speaking, deeply encumbered. The usual practice of pledging land renders its sale less common; but, notwithstanding the aversion felt to the total alienation of their patrimony, there are many instances of its actual sale. On these occasions it usually brings from eight to twelve years' purchase money on the clear rent; but the inequality of the land-tax, and the distance from great towns cause the value to vary, and to render it in some places not saleable. The land-tax is heavier than in the northern parts of Malabar, and the soil is more completely cultivated, which is probably the cause of the comparatively higher price of land in Malabar.

The lands are leased to tenants at will, or fixed tenants. The proprietors have power to turn out or raise

he rents of the first, but it is seldom lone. The rent lies between one quarer and one half of the gross produce. Lands and stock are scarce, and as he country gets more populous, ents will probably rise. The fixed enants are a kind of sub-proprietors, and are in some respects more indeendent than the proprietors from whom they hold. The great differnce between the lands in the Malabar and Canara provinces, and those of he other British districts in the south of India, is, that there they are vested n communities, here in individuals. The villages above the western ghauts are like corporations, communities, municipalities, or republics, possessng the whole of the lands, subject to certain contributions to the sovereign, who draws the whole land rent. If the government exacted the whole land rent from Malabar and Canara, the present proprictors would not be common, but individual tenants.

The rent at present received by the proprietors from fixed tenants and tenants at will is estimated to be generally about one half of the gross produce, the government tax being about sixty per cent. of the landlord's rent, and thirty per cent. of the gross produce. With respect to landed tenures, and the proportions which the landlord's and the government share bear to the whole produce, it is very difficult for the collector, assisted by a complete staff of native revenue officers, to come to any satisfactory conclusion. If the collector cannot ascertain this point with accuracy, notwithstanding his daily intercourse with the cultivators, it cannot be expected to be effected by a deputed itinerant, who calls in an individual to be interrogated, which person comes prepared with a series of stories, the offspring of his own genius for invention. In Canara the village accountant keeps a statement of the public revenue, but the peasant seldom keeps an account of his own profits and expenses, he therefore rarely can tell what they have been; and if he be desired to guess, he will answer most guardedly, especially when he is led into the tent for the purpose of being questioned, and magnify his losses and diminish his gain. On entering a field with him, it is the same exaggeration of loss and absence of gain, which are placed before the official inquirer in so strong a point of view, that he is surprised to find the worthy man alive and in good case under such horrible circumstances.

In a country so rocky and uneven as Canara, where cattle are not only scarce, but can seldom be employed; where every spot, before it can be cultivated, must first be levelled with great labour by the hand of man; the expense of the first preparation of waste land must have been so great, that it never would have been attempted unless the revenue assessment had been moderate. But even after the land is brought into cultivation, if it be neglected for a few years, it is soon broken by deep gullies, formed by the torrents which fall during the monsoon. In this province, and also in Malabar, the proprietor of land bestows on his little spot all that minute labour and attention which is so important to Indian husbandry. Each man lives on his estate; and the neatness of the culture and of the enclosures, shews the ardour with which the proprietor improves and embellishes his ground. In countries similar to Canara in climate, manners, and institutions, the arguments and examples adduced by Arthur Young in favour of large farms do not apply, because there is a want of stock, and general poverty, which at present keeps farms small; but even after stock has accumulated, the Hindoo system of an equal division among coheirs, will always have a tendency to keep them small. At present, in one district only of this province, this subdivision is so extreme, that the petty estates exceed 22,000 in number, some of them yielding only one fanam of rent.

In 1807 Canara was supposed to contain 576,640 persons, of which number the Brahmins were computed at 98,610. This great proportion of

Brahmins has probably conduced to the superior civilization of the province. The Jains are also more numerous than in the adjacent districts. The slaves resemble those of Malabar, and the Christians are numerous, but they are said to be of an inferior description to those in Travancore. Prior to the acquisition of this province by the Company, the population was much reduced in consequence of wars and internal feuds, the destruction of many principal towns by Tippoo Sultan, and his sending above 60,000 Christian captives into Mysore, from whence but a small number ever returned. The country was consequently found in a state of desolation, with large tracts of unclaimed waste, overgrown with jungle, especially in the vicinity of the ghauts.

This territory will probably never be a manufacturing country, because it produces none of the raw materials necessary to render it such, and because the heavy rains, which last so great a part of the year, are insurmountable obstacles to all operations which require to be carried on in the open air under a clear sky. But the same rains that deny it manufactures, give it a succession of never-failing crops of rice, and render it the granary of Arabia, Goa, Bombay, and Malabar, which would still continue to receive their supplies from hence, were even a heavy duty laid on exportation. A duty of this description would compel the rich Arabian (for there is no other depôt) who can afford to eat the rice of Canara, to contribute to the revenue of the province, nor would the amount exported be affected by a considerable impost, although it would by any interference of the civil power. The rise of price does not much alarm these traders; but the uncertainty of getting the article at all, which the intervention of the magistrate always occasions, would effectually drive the traders from its ports. Even if some apprehension of famine be occasioned by a great exportation, this ought not to be restrained until certain symptoms of scarcity appear, and even then the export to the other provinces under the British government ought never to be either prohibited or limited. The officers of government are generally more liable, in their zeal for the people under their immediate protection, to forbid exportation before necessity calls for so strong a measure, than the grain merchants to export too much, and by a free export the hardships of scarcity would be equally shared by the common subjects of the British empire.

When an embargo on grain is laid in Canara, the market there will be either overstocked or much better stocked than at Madras, so that the people of Canara may be surfeiting themselves with food, while their fellow subjects at the presidency are starving, and the lives of the people at the latter may be sacrificed to the groundless fears of the local authorities in Canara. Although even a famine should be a certain consequence of great exportation from Canara to Madras, the government must act for the general benefit of all their subjects, and it is the same thing to the sovereign whether his subjects die of hunger in Madras or Canara. Suppose a squadron of ships at sea to run short of water, and it happened through any accident that one had abundance: the commander would act very unjustly if he did not compel that ship to share her store with the others; in like manner the government ought to make the plenty of one assist the deficiencies of another, and a free communication is almost certain of preventing the extremities of dearth. In some particular cases government is justified in interfering to prohibit exportation to foreign states, but never to their own provinces, and all their public functionaries and inferior officers should be forbidden at all intermeddling, whatever, with bazars, markets, exports, and imports. The land customs in Canara bear hard on the people, and ought to be abolished, and a frontier duty, if necessary, substituted. A trifling revenue is raised by a toll on ferries,

which ought to be suppressed, for, as in India nobody travels for pleasure, it is a tax on industry. The shark fin duties are trifling in amount and vexatious in the collection, and ought to be erased, while the passes should be kept in good order, to encourage the merchants, who bring down sandal and other upland articles, and take away salt.

The province of Canara continued undisturbed under a Hindoo dynasty until 1763, when it was subdued by Hyder. On his taking possession it was a highly improved country, filled with industrious inhabitants, who enjoyed greater advantages than their neighbours above the ghauts. The small estates into which it was then subdivided, were considered the actual property of the holders, and the assessment was fixed and moderate. In 1799, it was transferred to the British authority, and has ever since continued a solitary example of tranquillity, of an easy and regular realization of the revenue, and of general prosperity. This has been attributed to the nature of the tenures by which the lands are held, to the moderate revenue exacted, and to its local situation, which is advantageous for the disposal of its produce. Since the cession a great improvement has been exhibited among the people in dress, mode of living, and other personal comforts; the aggregate revenue has increased, and is realized with singular punctuality, notwithstanding the numberless estates from which it is collected. The total public revenue collected in the Canara district from the 12th July 1816 to the 11th July 1817, was 718,085 pagodas.

The atrocities which were formerly so common in Malabar and Canara, are now much less frequent. The rebellions in Malabar were not so much objects of police, as civil wars, which burned with a smothered flame many years after the country devolved to the British. Canara has been quiet ever since it was acquired, because Major Munro took measures to secure tranquillity when the country was first subdued. The police of Canara has since been excellent, and compared with the former state of these countries, the property and persons of the people are secure, of which fact they are at length convinced. The collectors of the revenue ought to superintend the police, but should not be too much burthened with minute ordinances, which only tend to distract their attention from objects of greater importance. The judges would then be relieved from the vexatious and tedious duty of the criminal department, and would have more time and a less harassed mind to attend to the decision of civil suits, which are certainly more difficult, and perhaps as important, as the investigation of thefts and robberies. If the decision of civil suits be delayed, property becomes less valuable, and the defalcations of the revenue proportionally greater. As there is no immediate urgency for the decision of civil suits, they are sometimes postponed by the judges, but the courts of circuit come round and keep the district judge so on the alert in the criminal departments, that the civil judicature is liable to become a secondary consideration.—(*Thackeray, Wilks, Munro, F. Buchanan, Hodson, &c.*)

CANARA, NORTH.—The northern division of the Canara province is situated between the 13th and 15th degrees of north latitude, and was formerly partitioned into the three small sections of Cundapoor, Onore, and Ancola. On leaving Devakara the Karnata country begins, which extends below the ghauts, and occupies all the defiles leading up to the mountains. The portion of the Hindoo Kankana (Concan) comprehended in this division, forming the Ancola section, is larger than either of the departments into which Haiga is subdivided. All the country from Onore inclusive, as far as Gaukarna, is called Haiga, and is said to have been formerly under the authority of Ravana, king of Lanca or Ceylon.

North Canara produces sandal-

wood trees, sugar-canes, teak, wild cinnamon, and nutmegs, pepper, and cut or terra japonica, the mimosa catechu growing spontaneously on all the hills of North Canara. About 1800, the number of teak-trees cut down each year amounted to 3,000. About Beiluru are many groves of the calophyllum inophyllum, from the seed of which the common lamp oil is expressed. The sea-coast is principally occupied by Brahmin houses, the interior by villages of the Buntar caste, but it is not customary for the inhabitants to congregate in towns. A few shops are collected together in one spot, but the other natives of what is called a village are scattered about on their farms. According to the Abbé Dubois, between Tellichery and Onore there are no less than five different nations, who, though intermingled from time immemorial, still preserve their distinct languages, character, and national spirit.

Batticolla is principally in the Haiga country, and the most common farmers are a kind of Brahmins named Haiga, after the country, and a low caste of Hindoos, named Halepecas. The Comarapeca are a tribe of Concan descent, apparently sudras of pure birth, all soldiers and cultivators, with a strong inclination to robbery. From the long prevailing anarchy they became so impiously ferocious, that they compelled many Brahmins to adopt their caste and customs. A Brahmin of this division, who had written a narrative of the capture of Seringapatam, although he knew it happened on a Saturday, yet, because Saturday was an unlucky day, altered it to a Monday, as it now stands in his history. Such discrepancies, therefore, in Hindoo chronology, must not be considered by the antiquary as any proof either of ignorance or error.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Canara, South.—The southern division of the province is situated between the 12th and 14th degrees of north latitude. The country to the north of the river Chandragiri, where Malabar ends, is called Tulava by the Hindoos, and South Canara by the British. The soil of Tulava grows worse for grain as it recedes from the sea, but to judge from appearances, its occupiers are richer than those of Malabar, who are probably in easier circumstances than those above the ghauts. The universal cry of poverty in India, and the care with which every thing is concealed, render it very difficult to ascertain the real circumstances of the cultivator. A good slave sells for about ten pagodas, or four guineas; free men of low caste, if they be in debt or trouble, sometimes sell their sisters' children, for they have no authority over their own progeny, who belong to their maternal uncles. In the northern parts of South Canara there are two castes, called Bacadura and Batadura, both slaves, with exactly the same customs; yet each disputes for preeminence, and will not eat or intermarry with the other. The Brahmins of Tulava, like the Namburies (Brahmins) of Malabar, pretend that the country was created expressly for their use by Parasu Rama, and that they are the only persons entitled to be called proprietors of the soil.

Along the sea-coast from Cavai to Urigara, the inhabitants are principally Moplays (*Mahomedans*), who now possess the sea-coast as the Nairs do the interior. Although the Nairs are more numerous than the Moplays, yet during Tippoo's reign, when not protected by government, they were obliged to skulk in the woods, and all such as could be catched were circumcized. This mode of conversion, however involuntary, is perfectly effectual, and the convert becomes a good Mahomedan, as otherwise he would have no caste at all; and although the doctrine of caste be no part of the Mussulman faith, yet it has been generally adopted by the lower ranks of Mahomedans in India.

The chief towns in this division of the Canara province are: Mangalore, Barcelore, and Calliampoor; there

are no rivers of importance, but many mountain streams The language of Tulava, or South Canara, has a strong resemblance to that of Malabar, and the written characters are the same, but in the language of Tulava there is a great admixture of words from all the countries containing the five southern nations of India, viz Telinga, Maharashtra, Karnataca, Gujura, and Dravida. In Tulava the era of Salivahanam is in use, by which A D. 1800 corresponds with 1722. The year is solar.

The former sovereigns of Tulava, princes of the house of Ikeri, had always given great encouragement to the Christians, and had induced 80,000 of them to settle there. They were all of Concan descent, and retained the language, dress, and manner of that country. The clergy adopted the dress of the country in which they were domiciled; but they were all natives descended from Concan families, and were purposely educated in a seminary at Goa, where they were instructed in the Portuguese and Latin languages, and the doctrines of the Romish church. In Tulava they had twenty-seven churches, each provided with a vicar, the whole under the control of a vicar-general, subordinate to the Archbishop of Goa. Tippoo threw the priests into prison, forcibly converted the laity, and destroyed the churches. The Christian religion does not, like the Hindoo, forbid the re-admission of such delinquents, and these involuntary Mahomedans have in general reconciled themselves with the clergy, more than 15,000 having returned to Mangalore and its vicinity since the conquest of Seringapatam, and 10,000 more made their escape to Malabar. These poor people have none of the vices usually attributed to the native Portuguese, and their superior industry is acknowledged by the neighbouring Hindoos.

The Jain sect are remarkably abundant in this province, and at no remote period must have been the prevailing sect, many Jain temples still remaining in tolerable perfection. The proper name of the Jain sect is Arhita, and they acknowledge that they are one of the twenty-one sects who are considered heretical by Sancara Acharja. Like other Hindoos, they are divided into Brahmin, Khetri, Vaisya, and Sudra. These castes cannot intermarry, nor should widows burn with their husbands. The Védas and eighteen puranas of the Brahmins the Jains reject as heretical, asserting that these books were composed by a saint named Vyasa, whom the orthodox Brahmins consider to have been an incarnation of the deity. The Jain chief book of doctrine, named Yoga, is written in the Sanscrit language and Karnata character, and is explained by twenty-four puranas, all written by an author named Vrishana Sayana, a saint who by long continued prayer and austerity had obtained a knowledge of divine things. The gods of the Jains are the spirits of perfect men, who on account of their great virtue have become exempt from change, and are all of equal rank and power. They are called collectively by various titles, such as Jineswara, Arhita (the worthy), Siddha (the holy), and reside in a heaven named Mocsha. Concerning the great gods of the eighteen Puranas of the orthodox Brahmins, the Jains say that Vishnu was a raja, who having performed certain good works was born a second time as a raja named Rama. At first he was a hero and conqueror, but afterwards withdrew from worldly pleasures, became a sanyassi, or solitary devotee, and lived a life of such purity that he obtained Siddha, under the name of Jina, which he had assumed when he renounced his earthly kingdom.

By the orthodox Brahmins who follow the doctrines of Vyasa, the Jains are frequently confounded with the Sangata, or worshippers of Buddha, and in fact their tenets have in many points a strong resemblance to those taught in Ava by the adherents of Buddha. The Jain Brahmins abstain from lay affairs; and their gooroos or chief priests have authority to punish such of their followers as

lie, cheat, commit adultery, or murder. The fines are given to the god, that is to say, to the priest. They are scattered throughout Hindostan, but at present they are no where comparatively numerous except in South Canara.

The Jains have two sorts of temples: one covered with a roof, named Busty; the other an open area called Betta, which signifies a hill. In the Betta temples the only image of a saint is that of *Gomuta Raya*, said while on earth to have been a powerful king. His images are naked, and always of a colossal size. The one at Carculla is made of a single piece of granite, the extreme dimensions of which above ground are thirty-eight feet in height, and ten feet in thickness. An inscription on it indicates that it was constructed in the year A.D. 1431.

Travancore, Malabar, and South Canara (or Tulava) alone escaped Mahomedan conquest, until the two latter were invaded by Hyder A.D. 1765-6.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CANANORE (*Canura*).—A town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon. 75° 27′ E. This place was purchased from the Dutch by the ancestor of the Biby, or female sovereign, who is a Moplay (Mahomedan). Prior to this, their family were of little consequence; but having acquired a fortress, considered by the Nairs impregnable, they became powerful, and were looked up to as the head of the Moplays of Malabar. The succession goes on in the female line, according to the custom of the country, under which system the Biby's son will have no claim to the sovereignty, the heir apparent being the son of his neice, who is the daughter of his sister. The territory of this female sovereign on the continent, in 1800, paid 14,000 rupees of land tax to the British government, which also receives all the customs of her port. Most of the Laccadives are also subject to her authority: but they are wretched islands, producing no grain, nor any thing beyond cocoa-nuts, betel-nut and plantains. At the above date the Biby possessed several vessels, with which she traded to Arabia, Bengal, and Sumatra.

The town of Cananore lies at the bottom of a small bay, one of the best on this coast, and contains several good houses belonging to Mahomedan merchants. The people here have little or no communication with the Maldives, although the sultan and his islanders are also Moplays. The small division attached to Cananore extends no where more than two miles from the glacis of the fort, and the surface of the whole is high and uneven. In 1800, the number of houses in Cananore and the district of Cherical was 10,386, and of slaves there were 4,670, mostly of the Poliar and Pariah castes; but a great proportion of the cultivation is carried on by hired men. A trade is carried on from hence with Bengal, Arabia, Sumatra, and Surat, from which quarters horses, almonds, piece goods, sugar, opium, silk, benzoin, and camphor, are imported, the exports are principally pepper, cardamoms, sandal-wood, coir and shark fins. So early as A.D. 1505 the Portuguese had a fort at Cananore.—(*F. Buchanan, Bruce, &c.*)

CANCAO.—A town in Cambodia, which in 1820 was the frontier of the Cochin Chinese dominions. Lat. 11° N., lon. 104° E. This is a port of considerable commerce, although situated on a river not navigable for large vessels.

CANCOUPA.—A town and small district in the Mysore territories, twenty-one miles N. by W. from Chitteldroog. Lat. 14° 30′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E.

CANDAHAR (*Gandhara*).—In rank this is the second province of the Afghan empire, and by Abul Fazel in 1582 is described as follows: "Circar Candahar is situated in the second climate. The length from Kelat Bujaseh is 300 coss, and it measures in breadth from Sinde to Furreh 260 coss. On the east lies Sinde; on the west Gour and Ghourgistan; on the south, Sewee; and on the west, Fur-

rah and Cabul; on the north-west, it is bounded by Ghuzneen. The wheat of Candahar is very white, and is sent to a distance as a great rarity. In the vicinity of Candahar town are the ruins of a great city, the native place of the Ghorian sultans. Between Hermund and Candahar is situated the well known city of Meymund, mentioned in old astronomical tables."

This province having in recent times been little explored, its modern boundaries are quite unascertained, and many of the stations mentioned by Abul Fazel have quite disappeared from the maps. Compared with other quarters of Afghanistan, it is a hot climate, no snow falling in winter, and the small quantity of ice formed dissolving with the mid-day sun. The summer temperature is great, hot winds not unusual, or the fatal simoom unknown; yet the climate on the whole has been noted for its salubrity. North-east of the capital, Candahar has the aspect of a desert, and except small portions contiguous to inhabited places, no cultivation is seen. The buildings, from a scarcity of timber, are constructed, as in Cabul, of sun-burned bricks, and covered with a flat roof of the same material. The country immediately round the city is well cultivated and fertile, further south it is poor, and deteriorates so much as it extends west, that for many days' march towards the left bank of the Helmund river it is a complete desert.

This quarter of Afghanistan having been rarely visited by Europeans, our information respecting its produce and inhabitants is very deficient. A native traveller of 1795 (Seid Mustapha), among other productions mentions wheat, rice, joaree, gram, pease, and seeds of different sorts, dates, almonds and otr of roses. The cultivators he asserts are Moguls and Afghans, and the vernacular language the Pushtoo. Among the inhabitants he reckons a considerable number of Hindoos (partly Kanoje Brahmins), both settled in the town as traffickers, and cultivating the fields and gardens in the vicinity. Like the rest of Afghanistan, the country is thinly peopled, a considerable portion of the natives still leading a pastoral and migratory life. The principal domestic animals are camels and dogs, the last a superior breed for courage, strength, and sagacity. Among the wild animals are tigers, buffaloes, deer, and antelopes. With respect to religion, a great majority of the inhabitants are Mahomedans of the Sooni persuasion, and the country abounds with mosques, in which Seid Mustapha asserts both Hindoos and Mussulmans worship, and in other respects nearly assimilate. Candahar has in general been considered as an integral part of the Persian empire, but it was, with some intervals, almost two centuries subject to the Delhi emperors, until finally wrested from them by Nadir Shah. On the death of that bold, bad man, it became subject to Ahmed Shah Abdalli, the Afghan chief of Cabul, and has ever since remained attached to that state, though with a very fluctuating degree of obedience.—(*Seid Mustapha, Elphinstone, Forster, &c.*)

CANDAHAR.—A fortified town in Afghanistan, the capital of the Candahar province; lat. 36° 11′ N., lon. 66° 28′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Candahar is the capital of this circar, it has two forts. The heat is very severe and the cold temperate, except in the months of December and January, when water freezes. Here are flowers and fruits in abundance."

According to one tradition Candahar was founded by Lohrasp, a Persian monarch of great antiquity, but whose own existence is worse than doubtful, while another ascribes it with more probability to Secunder Zulkurnein (Alexander the Great). The ancient city stood until the predominance of the Ghiljies, when Shah Hussein founded a new city under the name of Husseinabad. Nadir Shah destroyed the old fortress, and attempted once more to alter the site of the town, for which purpose he built Naderabad. Ahmed Shah found-

ed the present city in 1753, and also gave it a new name: but the natives still retain the old one of Candahar. During that sovereign's reign it was the Durrany capital, but his son Timour Shah transferred the seat of government to Cabul, whence it was subsequently transferred to Peshawer. The surrounding country is level, and naturally fertile, and being irrigated both by conduits and wells, and industriously cultivated, the production of grain is abundant. The gardens contain vegetables, and excellent fruits and melons, cucumbers, &c are raised in the fields. Madder, assafœtida, lucerne, and clover are plentiful, and the Candahar tobacco has long had an excellent reputation.

The form of Candahar is an oblong square, and as it was built at once on a fixed plan, is very regular. Four long and broad bazars meet in the middle of the town, and at their point of junction is a circular space, about forty-five yards in diameter, covered with a dome, into which all the four streets lead. The central space, called Chassoo, is surrounded by shops, and here proclamations are read, and the bodies of criminals exposed. The town is plentifully supplied by two canals with water drawn from the Urgundaub, and crossed in different places by little bridges. From these canals lateral conduits are carried, both above and below ground, to almost every street in the town.

Candahar is divided into many quarters, each occupied by one of the numerous tribes, the aggregate of which composes its population, in 1809 estimated at 100,000 persons. Almost every Durrany chief has a house here, some of which are said to be large and elegant; and there are besides many large caravanserais and mosques; but none of the last handsome except one near the palace, in the vicinity of which stands the tomb of Ahmed Shah. This is not a large edifice, but has a handsome cupola, elegantly painted, gilt, and ornamented, and held in such veneration by the Durranies, that it is a sacred asylum for fugitives. Although, from the regularity of its plan, Candahar is superior to most European cities, it is far from magnificent, being for the most part built of brick, in many instances cemented with mud. Among the commonalty the Hindoos have the best dwellings. Contrary to what is the case in other cities of Afghanistan, a great proportion of the inhabitants are genuine Afghans; of these the greater number are Durranies. The other residents are Tajiks, Eimauks, Hindoos, Persians, Seistanies, and Baloochies, with a few Usbecs, Arabs, and Armenians. Among the stationary population are a few Jews, but it has been frequently observed that this race is never numerous where Hindoos have settled as brokers and money-changers.

While the Persian and Mogul empires flourished, Candahar was a frontier city, and an object of much competition, being frequently lost and won, until 1638, when it was betrayed to the Emperor Jehangir by the Persian governor Ali Merdan Khan. On the decline of both empires, it was for a short time possessed by native Afghan chiefs, but in 1737, Nadir Shah having deposed Thamas Mirza, entered Afghanistan with a large army, and captured Candahar from the Ghiljee chief Hossein Khan, after a siege, from first to last, of eighteen months. On Nadir's assassination it was acquired by Ahmed Shah Abdalli, and during his life-time continued the capital of the Durrany empire. Travelling distance from Delhi by Cabul 1,071 miles, from Agra 1,208; and from Calcutta 2,047 miles.—(*Elphinstone, Forster, Seid Mustapha, &c.*)

CANDALLA.—A poor village in the province of Aurungabad, with a tolerable bazar and government bungalow, and an inn kept by a Portuguese, situated on the road from Bombay to Poona, distant from the last forty-two travelling miles. This place stands on the verge of the Bhore ghaut, and in the neighbourhood there is a cataract which flows the whole year, descending in four successive falls, about 1,200 feet, into a valley of ample

depth and considerable gloom, down which its stream afterwards winds to join the sea, nearly opposite to Tannah, under the name of the Cahanee river. On a knoll above this waterfall, and close to the great precipice, Mr. Elphinstone erected a house, where he spent great part of each cold season.

CANDHAR (*Gandhara*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, twelve miles E from Rantampoor. Lat 26° N, lon 76° 29′ E.

CANDHAR (*Gandhara*).—A town in the Beeder province, sixty miles north from the town of Beeder Lat 18° 40′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E.

CANDEISH.

(*Khandesa*)

A province of the Deccan, situated principally between the twentieth and twenty-second degrees of north latitude To the north it is separated from Malwa by the course of the Nerbudda, to the south it has Aurungabad and Berar, on the east are the provinces of Gundwana and Berar, and on the west Gujerat Its limits have never been accurately defined, but it may be roughly estimated at 210 miles in length, by eighty the average breadth Candeish was one of the small soubahs formed during the reign of Acber, from conquests made south of the Nerbudda It then occupied the space between Malwa on the north, Berar on the east, and Ahmednuggur, afterwards Aurungabad, on the west and south; but being a new acquisition, its boundaries have since greatly fluctuated. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows.

"The Soubah of Dandees. This soubah was originally named Khandesh, but on the conquest of the fortress of Aseer, the name was changed to Dandees. It is situated in the second climate. In length from Poorgong, which joins Hindia to Selung, bordering on the territory of Ahmednuggur, it measures seventy-five coss, and the breadth from Jamood, which confines it towards Berar and Pall, joining to Malwa, is fifty coss. It is bounded on the north-west by Malwa, Kulneh confines it to the south; on the east lies Berar; and on the north large mountains. The soubah of Kandesh contains thirty-two mahals, revenue 12,647,072 tungehs."

Such were the ancient Mogul limits of this province; but in a report by Mr. Elphinstone, A.D. 1821, more accurate geographical boundaries are assigned, of which the following are the principal Candeish is bounded on the north by the Satpoora, or Injadree range of mountains; on the south by the Chandore fort range and the Adjuntee ghaut. On the south-west it is limited by the Syadree, commonly called the ghauts, at the termination of which, south of the Tuptee, is the hilly tract of Baglana. The plain of Candeish descends towards the Tuptee, from the hills on the north and south On the east it is bounded by Sindia's and the Nizam's territories on the Berar plains On the west the plain along the Tuptee stretches without interruption from the hills to the sea; but it is separated from the rich country about Surat by a thick and extensive jungle

Although interspersed with low barren hills, a large proportion of Candeish is remarkably fertile, being watered by copious streams, on many of which expensive embankments have been constructed. In 1820 some portions of land remained in good cultivation, and others, recently abandoned, conveyed a high notion of their ancient fruitfulness, and capability of renovation. But a large proportion of the surface at that date was covered with jungle, swarming with tigers, among the ruins of former villages. This scene of desolation was most conspicuous in the districts north of the Tuptee, which at no remote period yielded a large revenue, but in 1820 overspread with an uninhabited forest. The natural beauties of Candeish Proper are much enhanced by the number of limpid rivulets, hardly ever dry, that

flow down from the table-land and fall into the Tuptee.

The decline of Candeish may be dated from 1802, when it was ravaged by Jeswunt Row Holcar; next year it was depopulated by famine, and its ruin afterwards more slowly, but effectually, consummated by the Peshwa's officers. The Bheels now withdrew to their fastnesses, and made predatory incursions; the Pindarries annually devastated the plains; while various insurgent bands of Arabs, having established themselves in strong-holds and ghurries, infested all the country in their vicinity. After the British conquest in 1818 the Arabs were expelled, and the plundering horse extirpated; but the Bheels of the Satpoora range (which, although not more than 1500 feet high, have a difficult access and pestilential climate) continued to give much trouble, and were only brought under by cutting off their supplies, and pensioning the rulers to restrain the excesses of their subjects. The same plan was followed with the Bheels of the Chandore range, and with the Bheels and Coolies of Baglana, and after a short interval succeeded. Under such circumstances, it may readily be supposed that there is no want of waste land in this province, where it is granted on most favourable terms to cultivators and speculators; but it will require a long period of time to restore to prosperity a territory that has been so thoroughly depopulated. The existing villages are for the most part built of mud, and protected by a miserable wall and fort of the same material, without ditch or outwork.

This is one of the original Maharatta provinces, and so remarkably strong by art and nature, that formerly twenty fortresses could be counted in sight, within one day's march. Prior to the British conquest in 1818 a considerable portion of it was possessed by the Holcar family, having, like the adjacent soubahdary of Malwa, been partitioned between Sindia, Holcar, and the Peshwa, to whose share the British government succeeded by conquest, and to large sections from the others by treaties and exchanges. The chief rivers are the Nerbudda and Tuptee; the principal towns, Boorhanpoor, Aseerghur, Hindia, Nundoorbar, and Gaulna.

Among the hills, and along the courses of the Tuptee and Nerbudda, many Bheel Bhilla tribes are to be found, whose chiefs formerly commanded most of the passes. The Bheels also possess the eastern portion of the ghaut range, and all the spurs and branches that issue from thence towards the south as far east as Poona. They likewise spread over the plains to the east, more especially north of the Godavery, and are even discovered in the neighbourhood of the Wurda. On the north they extend beyond the Tuptee and Nerbudda, and are numerous in the Malwa and Gujerat jungles, and in all the eastern quarter of Gujerat. But it is in the wild tract stretching along the left bank of the Nerbudda, from the plains of Nemaur to those of Gujerat, amidst the Satpoora, Adjuntee, and Baglana congeries of hills, that they have been least disturbed, and it is here we may expect to find their peculiar usages in the purest preservation. They are a jungle people, differing from the other inhabitants in manners and appearance, and by some conjectured to have been the autochthones, or indigenæ, of Central Hindostan. Towards the west in Gujerat they meet the Coolies, and towards the south-east in Gundwana they come in contact with the Gonds; but the discrepancies that distinguish those tribes from each other respectively, and collectively from the low castes of Hindoos, have never been clearly ascertained.

The Bheels and Gonds almost universally inhabit the interior, where they cultivate little, being naturally averse to agriculture, and addicted to hunting and rapine; the Coolies are found mostly, but not exclusively, on or near the sea-coast, as fishers and pirates, but, on the whole, more

civilized than the two other tribes. Their common points of resemblance seem to be an aversion to regular industry, and a proneness to thieving and robbery, in which they are so expert, that they were formerly employed by the native chiefs to desolate the lands of their adversaries. In person the Bheels are small, dark-complexioned men, nearly in a state of nakedness, constantly armed with a bow and arrow, and in many circumstances closely resembling the mountaineers of Boglipoor, in the Bahar province. The pure Bheels trace their descent from Rajpoots, and in some tracts are distinguished by the term Bhillalas. They are subdivided into an endless variety of tribes and families, each living under its own Naik. In religion they are said to be Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion—yet they bury their dead, a marked distinction; and in feeding are addicted to many impure practices, for they eat beef and pork, and drink spirits of every description. Near Adjuntee, and among the Satpoora range, are many converted Mahomedan Bheels, who know little more of their new religion beyond its name. Their language does not differ essentially from the rude dialects used by the peasantry of the surrounding country. From a census taken in 1820 of the Bheel population of the Vindhya range, there did not appear to be more than six to a square mile.

Early in the fifteenth century Candeish was governed by independent sovereigns, claiming descent from the khaliff Omar, and resident at Aseerghur, their capital, but towards the close of that century it was completely subdued, and annexed to the Mogul empire. In recent times, and more especially when the Maharatta power began to totter, the greater part of Candeish had been usurped by Arab colonists, who, in fact, without any premeditated scheme, were in a fair way of becoming paramount in Hindostan, having already all the petty chiefs, whom they served as mercenaries, more or less under their domination. All of Holcar's possessions in Candeish having been ceded to the British in 1818, and the Arab colonists continuing refractory after every other class had submitted, its subjugation was regularly undertaken. Fortunately the Arabs had made a tyrannical use of their usurped authority, so that the great mass of the people were eager for their expulsion, while the Arabs were not sufficiently numerous to resist effectually; yet they did resist, for the alternative offered them was re-transportation to their own country, to which they appear to have had an extreme, although not altogether singular, repugnance. Force was resorted to, and the last body of Arabs surrendered in December 1818; but many of the Bheel chiefs, trusting to their mountains and jungly recesses, continued refractory. Into these fastnesses they were pursued by various British officers, who expelled them from den after den, and about the end of 1819 terminated this harassing and unwholesome warfare.—(*Elphinstone, Briggs, Malcolm, Fullarton, Abul Fazel, Prinsep, &c.*)

CANDEISH (*District of*).—A British collectorate in the Deccan, consisting of various portions of the province of Candeish, acquired during the Maharatta war of 1818, but intermingled with villages belonging to Sindia, Holcar, the Nizam, and others. That this district is capable of great improvement, is evident from the dilapidated remains of more than 100 substantially built dams and aqueducts, constructed for the purposes of irrigation, which at a small expense might be again rendered available. It never recovered from the devastation of Jeswunt Row Holcar's troops in 1802-3, and the subsequent famine of 1803-4, the Peshwa's destructive farming system, the incursions of the Pindarries, and the ravages of the Bheels. To these apparently sufficient causes of ruin may be added, the number of tigers with which the country absolutely swarmed, sixty having been killed in one month; and

the destructive epidemic which swept off many thousands in 1821

It was not until the beginning of 1819 that Aumulnair fell, or that Candeish could be said to be in our possession, when a vast extent of unreclaimed jungle was discovered, nearly one-half of the villages having been deserted, and abandoned to the beasts of the forest In 1820 the total jumma was 16,88,718 rupees, but the net revenue realized amounted to only 7,99,049 rupees The inhabitants, exclusive of villages, belonging to the chiefs above-mentioned, were then estimated by Mr Chaplin at 417,976 persons. Capt Briggs describes the agricultural classes as peaceable and inoffensive, but timid and helpless, and ground to the earth by the multiplied calamities they had experienced —(*Chaplin, Briggs, Elphinstone, &c*)

CANDELYE.—A small village in Ceylon, nineteen miles S W from Trincomalee, which in 1818 contained only sixteen families The great tank here is about four miles in circumference, and is one of the best specimens of native exertion in Ceylon The embankment is one mile and a third long, twenty feet in height, and at the base 150 feet wide, but at the above date it only served to water one paddy field —(*Davy, &c*)

THE KINGDOM OF CANDY.

The central and mountainous provinces of the island of Ceylon, until A D 1815, formed the dominions of the king of Candy, which have been roughly estimated at 12,360 square miles The rugged and inaccessible nature of the territory, the insalubrity of the kingdom, and hostility of the Candians, have, until very recently, prevented any accurate survey even of the tracts under the immediate control of the British government The passes on the western side, that lead through the mountains to the interior, are steep and difficult, and formerly were little known, even to the natives After ascending the mountains and penetrating through the boundary forests, the country presents few traces of cultivation, and proceeding onwards towards the centre, the elevation increases, and the woods and mountains that separate the different corles become more steep and impervious, it was in the midst of these fastnesses that the native dynasty so long preserved its independence against a succession of foreign invaders, and retained possession, under a sort of feudal constitution, of above two-thirds of the whole island The ascent on the west side is more gradual, and the surface less covered with jungle, stagnant water, and putrid vegetation, it has accordingly been found much less destructive to the health of European troops than the eastern route to the interior

Under the old Candian dynasty, these dominions were subdivided into dissavonies and ratties, the first equivalent to provinces, the latter to counties The following is a list of each, according to the old arrangement

Dissavonies

Nuwera Kalawa	Wellassey
The Seven Corles	Bintenne
The Four Corles	Tamankadua
The Three Corles	Matele
Saffragam	Walapane
Ouva	Udapalate

Ratties

Doombera	Udunuara
Hawassea Patoowe	Kotmalé
Toompane	Hewahetté.
Yatenuara.	

The whole of the Candian provinces, with the exception of the plains round Anurodburro, present a constant interchange of steep mountains and deep vallies The excessive thickness of the woods that cover the face of the country causes heavy fogs and unwholesome damps to prevail, every evening the fogs fall with the close of day, and are not again dissipated until the sun has acquired great strength. The vallies are in general marshy, full of springs, and excellently adapted for the rearing of cattle and the cultivation of rice. The high range of mountains that extend across the

Candian territory seems to divide the island into two different climates, by breaking the force and regularity of the monsoons. As may be inferred from the nature of its surface, the central region is ill adapted for internal navigation, for although many rivers, or rather mountain torrents, intersect it, they are during the rains (with the exception of the Mahavali Gunga) so rapid in their course and rocky in their channels, as not to permit the passing of boats, while in the opposite season they are mostly dried up.

The agriculture of Ceylon, like that of the south of India, is divided into the dry and the wet, the first being chiefly practised on the sides of hills and on plains where there is no command of water, the last consists wholly of rice, and is carried on wherever sufficient water can be procured for the purposes of irrigation. In the low countries the paddy fields are flat and extensive, but among the mountains they are merely a succession of terraces, in each of which the crop may be seen in different stages of its growth, in some, just vegetating, in others, full grown, ripening, and fit for the sickle.

By the proclamation of General Brownrigg, in 1818, the general assessment on the entire paddy lands of the Candian provinces was fixed at one-tenth of the annual produce, to be delivered by the cultivator at convenient storehouses in each province.

There is every reason to believe that the Candians and Cingalese (or Ceylonese) were originally one people, differing only in local and political circumstances, the first having always been secluded among the woody mountains, and interdicted all communion with strangers, while the other was overspread with colonies from distant and hostile nations. In language, religion, and modes of life, they are essentially the same, but the Candians are fairer, stouter, less polished in their manners, and, owing to their wearing a beard, of a more ferocious aspect. The upper classes have long been pre-eminent, even among Indian nations, for cruelty and perfidy; and the lower orders, when occasion offered, have been sufficiently prone to imitate their superiors; yet there is scarcely a doubt, that the mild system of government and equal distribution of justice they are now experiencing, will gradually render them as inoffensive as their brethren on the sea-coast.

Until 1815, the intercourse between the two classes was almost as completely cut off as between the most savage and inveterate tribes of North America. While the royal form of government lasted, the king was the sole proprietor of the lands occupied by his subjects, whose dependence was of the most abject description, although the monarchy was in some respects elective. The king of Candy in 1800 was a native of the Carnatic by a female branch, but by no means the nearest heir, having been brought in by the influence of the prime minister, or chief adigar. In theory, the constitution was the purest despotism, but in practice an aristocracy, the combination of a few chiefs generally arranging the succession. By the lower classes the kings were venerated as deities, and worshipped with the basest adulation, although most of them appear to have been despicable tyrants. The nobility and courtiers do not appear to have been deficient in acuteness and capacity for business, in the conduct of which they always displayed such a proneness to intrigue, falsehood, cunning, and political finesse, as to render treaties or engagements with them a mere waste of time and paper, and the court itself a perfect hotbed of faction, conspiracy, and rebellion.

The Candians of the interior rarely congregate into populous communities. Candy, the metropolis, may be called a large village, but the kingdom contains no other, the natives preferring either small hamlets or detached dwellings. Each little district comprehends within itself every article of necessity, luxuries, such as salt, salt-fish, and tobacco, are sup-

plied by itinerant Malabars or Moormen. The higher ranks use various curries, and eat eggs, fowls, game, and different kinds of animal food; but beef they reject with abhorrence. Those who have a great deal of leisure, amuse themselves with card-playing (which they appear to have learned from the Portuguese), or in listening to wonderful stories, poetry, and music. With respect to general civilization they are inferior to the Cingalese, who are at least on a par with the common Hindoos of the continent, while their upper classes, in courtesy and polish, are not inferior to the most wily Maharatta Brahmin. Indeed, it is probable that the modern Candians are much the same as they were 300 years ago, when first visited by the Portuguese, at which era there is every reason to believe their manners had continued unchanged for an indefinite number of preceding centuries

The Candians and Cingalese appear entirely ignorant of mathematics and geometry, and even of arithmetic their knowledge is very limited They have figures of their own to represent umbers, but for the purposes of business have adopted the Hindoo system of notation. Their weights and measures are most inaccurate, one of their modes of estimating distance being the place between two spots from whence a loud holloa may be heard. Four of these make a gow, and five gows a day's journey, or from twenty-five to thirty miles. The silver coin or token in circulation, called a riddy, is merely a bit of silver bent into the form of a fish-hook, and worth about sixpence Being accustomed to make their purchases in the way of barter, metallic money is but little used by the central Cingalese, of which fact an idea may be formed from the circumstance that the whole revenue in specie of the late king did not exceed £1,500 sterling.

The Cingalese are tolerably expert at casting figures of brass and copper, of which a favourable specimen is still extant at Candy, in a figure of Buddha. Ores of iron and manganese are the only ones that have been discovered in Ceylon. Their blacksmiths can make gun-barrels, and even gun-locks; which, although coarse, are quite serviceable. Their hones, composed of kapetia, resin, and corundum, reduced to an impalpable powder, are particularly good. The art of manufacturing gunpowder is generally understood, but shews little refinement, no attempt being made to granulate it, so that they are obliged to use it in a state of very coarse powder or dust. The radical of the Cingalese language is the Sanscrit, and like the Javanese it is said to have three distinct dialects, one for addressing majesty, one for religious purposes, and another for daily intercourse. They write neatly and expeditiously with a sharp-pointed iron stile, on the leaf of the talipot palm, colouring the characters afterwards by rubbing them with a mixture of lamp-black and gum. The subjects of their manuscripts are chiefly theology, poetry, history, medicine, and astrology The first year of Sakka corresponds with 621 of Buddha, and with A D 78 of our era. In 1811, when Capt. Canning was at Rangoon, a sacerdotal mission to the Burmese sovereign of Ava arrived there from Candy, both nations professing the same doctrines; yet the king of the country last-mentioned was himself (as his ancestors had always been) of the Brahminical persuasion.

When the Portuguese arrived in Ceylon, they are said to have found it occupied by only two classes of inhabitants, the Bedahs in the north-east, and the Cingalese in the south-west; but it is probable that even then the Carnatic races had obtained a footing, as there is no tradition extant that the Cingalese ever inhabited the parts about Jafnapatam. The most singular portion of the Ceylon population is the Bedahs or Vaddahs, who inhabit the inmost recesses of the forest. Their descent has never been traced, and they appear to differ so much from the other natives, that, like the Bheels, Gonds, Coolies, and

Boglipoor savages of Hindostan, they have been considered aboriginal. They are scattered over the woods in different parts of the island, but are most numerous in the province of Bintan, north-east of Candy, where they subsist by hunting deer and other wild animals, and on the fruits that grow spontaneously around them, for they never cultivate the earth. They sleep on trees or under them, and climb up like monkies when alarmed. A few of the less wild traffic with the Candians, giving ivory, honey, wax, and deer, in exchange for cloth, iron, and knives; but the untamed race named the Rambah Bedahs are more seldom seen, even by accident, than the most timid of the wild animals.

Although the Candian nation was governed in a most arbitrary manner, yet its customs and prejudices were shared and respected by their monarchs, and they were justly proud of being exempt from a foreign yoke. In the number and extravagance of their titles the kings of Candy yielded to no eastern potentate, and, like the emperors of China, they were viewed by their subjects with a mysterious reverence. There were generally two adigars or ministers, and it was a maxim of state policy to appoint them from different factions. The next in rank were the dessaves, or superintendents of corles, and also the principal military commanders. Much the greatest proportion of the king's revenue arose from contributions, levied irregularly by his officers two or three times a year, and consisting of precious stones, ivory, cloth, corn, fruit, honey, wax, arms, &c. &c.

In A.D. 1798 the king of Candy died, and the chief adigar raised to the throne a young native of the Carnatic, to the prejudice of Mootoo Swamy and other candidates of the royal race. In 1803 a war ensued, of a most destructive nature (from the pestilential climate) to the British troops engaged, which lasted with different vicissitudes until 1805, when a tacit cessation of hostilities took place, without any regular treaty, such a document being considered no additional security for its permanence. In 1815 what foreign violence could not accomplish was effected by the insane cruelty of the king, which rendered him so detested by all classes of his subjects, that they implored the assistance of the British government to drive the monster from the throne. In consequence of reiterated supplications, in February 1815 a British army entered the Candian territories, and the king fled from his capital pursued by his own troops and subjects, by whom he was captured, plundered, and reviled. In achieving this long-protracted conquest, the resistance in a military point of view was trifling, and principally arose from the indescribably rugged surface of a country intersected by mountains, jungles, and morasses. Indeed, under existing circumstances, the expedition could not have been undertaken without the concurring wishes of the chiefs and people, without whose aid and acquiescence it could not have been commenced, far less brought to a successful issue without the sacrifice of a single life.

The peace of Ceylon now appeared imperturbable, even the climate indicated an improvement, the mortality among the Europeans having decreased most remarkably. But the calm was of short duration, for in the course of two years an insurrection was excited by the turbulent ambition of a few discontented chiefs, and kept alive by their pernicious influence over a people, habituated to the most implicit obedience; for in fact no charge or accusation was ever brought against the administration of the British government. In September 1817 intelligence was received that a pretender to the throne (a native of the seven corles, who had been a Buddhist priest), with two old and six young priests, had taken up his abode in the jungles of Wellasee. Mild and conciliatory measures were tried at first, but found unavailing; and when vigorous exertions were resorted to, the usual afflictions from disease and climate were experienced.

Protected by their wilds and fastnesses, the insurgents persevered obstinately in their rebellion, and involved the British nation in an immense expenditure of blood and treasure, until the conclusion of 1819, at which date active operations had entirely ceased in the Candian territories. The old system, which greatly impeded all efforts towards amelioration, being abrogated by the rebellion, the interior of Ceylon was placed under the same political circumstances as the maritime provinces, and subject to the direct management of the British government, which had previously shared it with the native chiefs. For three centuries the topography of Candy had been a matter of romance and conjecture, but during the last revolt every mountain, forest, brake, den, chasm and ravine were scoured in search of the enemy, who had hitherto considered their native thickets impervious to a European soldier.—(*Davy, Public Documents, Percival, Cordiner, Knox, Major Johnston, Harington, &c.*)

CANDY.—The ancient capital of the Candian principality, or empire as the Dutch called it, is situated in lat. 7° 17′ N., lon. 80° 36′ E., about eighty miles direct distance N.E. from Columbo, and 95° S.W. from Trincomalee. The travelling distance from Candy to Columbo through the three and four corles is eighty-five miles. Three miles from Candy, the Mahavilly Gunga, which almost surrounds it, is crossed at a ferry, where the river is two-thirds the size of the Thames at Richmond, its course rapid and banks finely wooded. The climate is cool, averaging the whole year round about 74° Fahrenheit.

CANDY, the Maha Neura, or great city of the Cingalese, stands in the district of Yatineura, about 1,467 feet above the level of the sea, at the head and widest part of an extensive valley. Being situated on the margin of an artificial lake, and surrounded by wooded hills varying in height from 200 to 2,000 feet, the scenery is beautiful and romantic, but as a military position a worse one could scarcely be selected. The houses that compose the only street are all of clay, one story, and, with the exception of a few chiefs' dwellings, all thatched. The principal edifices, if they deserve such an appellation, are the palace and different temples. The first occupies a considerable extent of ground, the last are numerous, every royal residence having its orthodox number of temples. One of these contains the Dalada, or sacred tooth of Buddha, now in British custody, and (according to natives) their only legitimate document of enfeofment, its possession entitling the holder to the government of the kingdom. Indeed, the capture of this holy grinder was by them considered of infinitely greater importance than any event that occurred during the late war. When taken by a British detachment in 1803, it was found to be a miserably shabby place of one long street, and in 1819 the total population of Candy was thought not to exceed 3,000 persons.—(*Davy, Major Johnston, &c.*)

CANI, or KEANE RIVER.—See KEN RIVER.

CANNIA.—Hot springs in the island of Ceylon, situated in a low ground abounding with quartz, about seven miles from Trincomalee. When the thermometer in the air was 77°, the temperature of two was 101°, one 86°, another 107°, one 88°, one 105°, and one 91°. In the last, when examined by Dr Davy, there were two or three small fish. The temperature of these wells is said to be liable to fluctuation, the hottest having been found so high as 110°. The whole are enclosed by a brick wall thirty-six feet long by sixteen broad. When analyzed nothing extraordinary could be detected, except a slight trace of common salt, with a little carbonic acid gas and azote, the specific gravity being the same as that of distilled water. It is probable that all the wells are supplied from the same source, and that their temperatures

depend on the quantity of water discharged into them.—(*Davy, &c.*)

CANOON.—A town in the Agra province, situated about eighty miles W S W. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 18′ N., lon 75° 51′ E. On approaching Canoon by the Delhi road, the appearance of the desert commences. Three miles to the east of it are sand-hills, at first covered with bushes, but afterwards degenerating to naked piles of loose sand, rising one above the other like waves of the sea, and marked by the wind on the surface like drifted snow. Further west the soil becomes more and more arid, until it ends in the great desert Ten miles beyond Canoon (which in 1804 was occupied by a detachment) in that direction is the limit of the British dependencies in this quarter, after which the Rajpoot district of Shekawutty commences —(*Elphinstone, &c*)

CANROODY —A small subdivision of the Gundwana province, bounded on the south by Sohagepoor, and intersected by the Sone river and its contributary streams, brooks, and rivulets It contains no towns of the least importance Like those of many other tracts of this large and barbarous province, its zemindars and cultivators had tribute occasionally extorted from them by the Maharattas.

CANTALBARRY.—A town in the low country north-west of Cooch Bahar, subject to Bootan; lat. 26° 37′ N, lon. 89° 12′ E.

CANTON —A seaport town in the empire of China, to which the European traffic has hitherto been exclusively confined, lat. 23° 7′ N., lon. 113° 14′ E.

The city stands on the eastern bank of the Pekiang river, which flows from the interior in a navigable stream of 300 miles to this town, where it is rather broader than the Thames at London bridge, and from hence falls, after an additional course of eighty miles, into the southern sea of China, near its junction with which it takes, among foreigners, the name of Bocca Tigris. The town is surrounded by walls about five miles in circumference, on which a few cannon are mounted, but the whole of its fortifications, with a view to defence, are in every respect despicable, and only serve to prevent the intrusion of Europeans.

Although Canton is situated nearly in the same parallel of latitude with Calcutta, yet there is considerable difference in their temperature; the former being much the coolest, and requiring fires during the winter months The suburbs may be frequented by Europeans, but they are not permitted to enter the gates of the Tartar city; which however, in its architecture and exterior appearance, entirely resembles the suburbs. The streets of Canton are very narrow, paved with little round stones, and flagged close to the sides of the houses. The front of every house is a shop, and those of particular streets are laid out for the supply of strangers, China-street (named by the seamen Hog-lane) being appropriated to Europeans, and here the productions of almost every part of the globe are to be found. One of the shop-keepers is always to be found sitting on the counter, writing with a camel's-hair brush, or calculating with his swanpan, on which instrument a Chinese will perform operations in numbers with as much celerity as the most expert European arithmetician. This part of Canton being much frequented by the seamen, every artifice is used by the Chinese retailers to attract their attention, each of them having an English name for himself painted on the outside of his shop, besides a number of advertisements composed for them by the sailors in their own peculiar idiom The latter, it may be supposed, are often duped by their Chinese friends, who have in general picked up a few sea-phrases, by which the seamen are induced to enter their shops; but they suit each other extremely well, as the Chinese dealers

possess an imperturbable command of temper, laugh heartily at their jokes without understanding them, and humour the seamen in all their sallies.

The foreign factories extend for a considerable way along the banks of the river, at the distance of about one hundred yards. They are named by the Chinese hongs, and resemble long courts, or closes, without a thoroughfare, which generally contain four or five separate houses. They are built on a broad quay, and have a broad parade in front. This promenade is railed in, and is generally called Respondentia Walk; and here the European merchants, commanders, and officers of the ships, meet after dinner and enjoy the cool of the evening. The English hong, or factory, far surpasses the others in elegance and extent, and before each the national flag is seen flying The neighbourhood of the factories is occupied with warehouses for the reception of European goods, or of Chinese productions, until they are shipped. In 1822, during a dreadful conflagration that took place at Canton, the British factories and above ten thousand other houses were destroyed, on which occasion the East-India Company's loss was estimated at half a million sterling, three-fifths in woollens.

For the space of four or five miles opposite to Canton, the river resembles an extensive floating city, consisting of boats and vessels ranged parallel to each other, leaving a narrow passage for vessels to pass and repass. In these the owners reside with their families, the latter of whom in the course of their lives but rarely visit the shore. The Chinese junks that trade to Batavia and the Eastern islands, lie in the centre of the river, moored head and stern, many of them of very large dimensions. At present these junks are almost entirely built at Bankok, in Siam. The parts under water are constructed of common timber, but the upper parts of teak, and iron bolts are used in fixing the frame and planking. The seams are neatly caulked with oakum made of the bamboo, and the bottom payed with a kind of rozin named dammer and quick-lime. The bow is flat like the stern, but much smaller, having no keel or cutwater, and the stern has an immense channel or chamber, in which the rudder receives protection from the sea. The masts (of a single spar each), are from two to four in number, and of very unequal dimensions, the mainmast being greatly larger than any of the rest; and there is only a single square sail made of split bamboos on each mast, extended by yards, also of bamboo. There is only one deck, but the entire hold is subdivided into little cabins or compartments, well caulked and secured, to contain the goods, and afford accommodation to each adventurer. A considerable loss of stowage is of course sustained, but the Chinese exports generally contain a considerable value in a small bulk. Pumps are unknown or not made use of. The cables are of twisted rattans; the anchors of iron-wood, having the flukes occasionally tipped with iron; the standing and running rigging are either of rattan or of coir, the fibre of the cocoa-nut husk; the whole to a seaman's eye presenting a most singular and grotesque appearance. The deck exhibits the form of a crescent, the extremities being disproportionately high and unwieldy, conveying the idea that a sudden gust of wind would upset the huge tub; and, indeed, except before the wind, they are quite unmanageable, and require a crew of at least forty men to every hundred tons. Sometimes no less than fifty men are employed at once on board one of the largest in managing the helm; and besides the crew they take on board a crowd of passengers. A junk bound from Amoy to Batavia, about 1,000 tons burthen, foundered at sea in 1822; her cargo, including crew and passengers, amounted to 1,600 persons, of whom 200 were saved by a British country trader.

Besides the defective construction of these junks, the Chinese are en-

tirely ignorant of navigation as a science, and even of any practical useful knowledge. They keep no reckoning, and take no observations of the heavenly bodies, the latitude and longitude of places being quite unknown to them; neither do they make any allowance for winds, currents, or leeway. Their compasses are divided into twenty-four parts, and according to Du Halde are made in Japan, from whence they probably acquired their knowledge of its magnetic influence. Their voyages, however, being always undertaken during a favourable monsoon, they set the head of their junk towards the quarter they are bound to, and blunder on with much less damage than might be expected. During the north-east monsoon they sail to Manilla, Banca, and Batavia, exporting besides goods a great number of their surplus population, and return to Amoy and Canton with that from the south-west.

The ships and vessels of the Chinese, notwithstanding their imperfections, are greatly superior in construction, size, and utility, to those of every other Asiatic people who have not had the example or assistance of Europeans. The common Chinese name for their own vessels that perform distant voyages is tcheru; the Portuguese call them soma; the Indian islanders wankang, and we name them junks, a corruption of the word jung, which means a large vessel in several languages of the Eastern archipelago, in contradistinction to boats or canoes.

Almost the whole foreign commerce of China is conducted from the two maritime provinces of Canton and Fokien, but much the largest share of the trade to the Eastern isles is carried on from the last. The most numerous, largest, and richest junks, sail from Fokien, which produces also nearly the whole of the black tea that is exported to foreign countries. The principal port of export is Hiamen, which Europeans name Amoy, or more correctly Emmui, from the name of the island that forms its excellent and capacious harbour. At this place the security merchants are three in number, who exact from the adventurers to the Eastern archipelago a duty of six per cent. on exports, and five per cent. on imports. This commercial intercourse has existed from the remotest antiquity, and has always been most beneficial to both parties, more especially to China, where a demand for the peculiar productions of the isles seems completely interwoven with the habits, manners, and religious ceremonies of that singular nation, whose industry we constantly find directed either to objects of mere necessity, or for the gratification of their sensual appetites, for it never assumes the character of intellectual enterprize.

Canton is about fifteen miles above Whampoa, in which distance there are five chop or custom-houses, where boats are examined. The head tontiff, named by the mariners John Tuck, regulates the emperor's duties, respecting which the importer remains ignorant, as they are paid by the purchaser of the goods, which are generally weighed and carried off immediately on landing. The cargoes are weighed with English weights of fifty instead of fifty-six pounds, and afterwards reduced to Chinese catties, by multiplying by three, and dividing by four, and then converted to peculs by dividing the product by one hundred. A pecul weighs 133⅓ pounds English, and a catty one pound and one-third English; but the Chinese weights are generally inaccurate, and must be attended to. All goods in China are bought by weight, even articles of food, such as milk, fowls, hogs, &c. The long measure is the cubit of fourteen inches and three quarters. A tael is equal to 5,798 decimal, troy weight; and in the East-India Company's accounts the tael of silver is reckoned at six shillings and eight-pence sterling.

The Chinese measure a ship from the centre of the fore-mast to the centre of the mizen-mast for the

length, and close abaft the mainmast from outside, taking the extreme for the breadth: the length is then multiplied by the breadth, and divided by ten, the result being, according to their ideas, the mensuration of the ship. At the customhouse the ships that arrive are classed under three denominations, first, second, and third rates; and ships, however small, pay as third-rates, which is a heavy charge on the small vessels that frequent the port; nor is the duty augmented on ships exceeding the size of what they term first-rates. The proportions are

	cubits long.	cubits broad.
1st rates	74	23
2d do.	71	22 to 23
3d do.	65 to 71	20 to 22

The duties on ships of the smallest class amount, on an average, to about 4,000 dollars, and not a great deal more is exacted for ships of larger dimensions. Small country ships frequently lie off Linting Fora, or large bay, until some of the large China ships from Europe, which have always spare room, come in sight, when they tranship their cargoes, which is usually carried up to Canton for one per cent, by which expedient the duties, customs, and measurement of the ship, as well as the emperor's present, are saved.

The monopoly of all foreign trade by the policy of the Chinese government is consigned to a limited number of merchants, seldom exceeding eight, but occasionally more. In 1793 they were twelve; in 1808, fourteen. All foreign cargoes pass through the hands of these merchants, who are commonly men of large property, and by them also the return cargoes are furnished. With them the East-India Company's supercargoes transact the concerns of their employers; they dispose of the goods imported, and purchase the commodities that compose the homeward cargo. At the close of the season they are generally indebted above half a million sterling to the Company, and have besides, property in their hands belonging to the Company and other British subjects, the aggregate of which has been estimated at two millions sterling.

The whole establishment of the East-India Company here consists of twelve supercargoes and eight writers. The latter have a small annual allowance and a free table, and they succeed in rotation to the situations of the former, who have also a free table, and annually divide among themselves, in shares proportioned to their seniority, a sum falling short of £80,000 sterling. This arises from a per-centage on the import and export cargoes, producing to the chief on an average of £8,600 per annum; and to the first, second, and third members of the select committee, above £7,100. The senior supercargo has about £6,000 per annum, and the juniors in proportion, declining on a graduated scale, but none of the supercargoes have less than £1,500 per annum. Having, in addition to this, the accommodation of a free house and table, they may be considered as the best paid services in the world. The services to be performed for this liberal remuneration, consist in a residence for three or four months every year at Canton, during the season of intercourse with the hong or security merchants, to whom they deliver the imported goods, and receive the teas and other return produce. When the business of the season is finished, the ships loaded, and despatched to England, they retire to Macao for the rest of the year, where they remain until the opening of the ensuing season. Here they have scarcely any thing to do, and are cooped up within a space not exceeding two or three miles, with scarcely any society but what is formed among themselves. The number of writers sent to China by the East-India Company, from 1821 to 1825 inclusive, was six, or one per annum. The expense of the East-India Company's establishment at Canton, computed on an average of the four years preceding 1823, was £90,858; the other expenses attending the China trade in China and

England, computed on an average of seven years, was £234,444. These disbursements are exclusive of the proportion of the charges of establishment, &c.; of interest (£217,254), of insurance (£58,065), and loss by fire at Canton in 1822 (£380,133). The average rate of tonnage paid by the East-India Company from Canton, in 1822 and 1823, was £21. 11s. per ton; the amount of tonnage in 1822, was 29,535 tons; in 1823, 29,930 tons.

The external commerce of Canton is very considerable, and the articles of import numerous; but their comparative importance is almost absorbed in that of tea. There are two descriptions of tea, black and green, permanent varieties of the same plant, subdivided into varieties. The districts in China that produce the green tea are distinct, and even distant from those that yield the black, the different varieties requiring a peculiar soil, climate, and mode of culture. China is the only country that affords fine teas fit for exportation. In Japan the tea plant is not reared with attention, being carelessly planted along the edges of corn fields, and subsequently dried with little attention to its preservation. The teas of Tunquin and Cochin China, are still coarser; and even in China, situations every way adapted for the cultivation of tea are not abundant. The black teas for exportation are all produced in the north-western quarter of Fokien, and the green in that of Kiangnan, both maritime provinces in the neighbourhood, and to the west of Whechufu. The province of Fokien is in a manner separated from the rest of the empire by a chain of mountains, named Buye, (of which the term Bohea is a corruption), among the vallies of which the black tea is grown, and thence brought, mostly overland, for about 360 miles, by porters to Canton. The green tea districts are still more remote, being above 800 miles travelling distance; but they have the advantage of an internal navigation. The qualities and prime cost of tea exported by the East-India Company from Canton, in 1822-23, were as follows:

	lbs.	£
Bohea	1,738,293 ...	69,910
Congou	21,256,129 ...	1,493,962
Souchong ...	142,345 ...	13,485
Sonchi	41,004 ...	4,380
Pekoe	15,463 ...	1,493
Twankay ...	3,486,629 ...	243,589
Hyson Skin .	165,715 ...	11,961
Hyson	624,007 ...	84,919
Young do....	9,228 ...	1,039
	lbs. 27,478,813	£1,924,738

In 1825-26, the quantity of tea imported into Great Britain, was 29,345,778 lbs.; exported 4,124,304 lbs.; delivered for home consumption, 24,150,372 lbs.

The imports into Canton are more miscellaneous than the exports, but the most remarkable in value and amount is that of opium, the consumption of which in China, although rigidly prohibited and contraband, must be enormous. From 1821 to 1825 inclusive, the sum paid by the Chinese annually for this intoxicating drug, has averaged eight millions of dollars per annum, never rising much above or falling much below that specific sum. The quantity of Patna and Benares opium sold at Canton, in the season of 1825-26, was 3,342 chests; and of Malwa opium 6,276 chests; the total value amounting to 7,759,380 Spanish dollars.

Another curious article of import is the edible bird's-nest, of which it is estimated 242,000 pounds are consumed by the Chinese annually; the purchase-money in the Eastern archipelago amounting to about £280,000, but to the consumer at least three times that amount. In fact, there is no commercial article of which the cost of production bears so small a proportion to the market price; yet the value of this immense property depends solely on the capricious taste and strange luxury of a sensual nation, which, except the French, is the only one that has elevated cookery

to the dignity of a science. In like manner, fish-maws, shark-fins, and dried sea-slug, are imported in large quantities, and fetch high prices.

From Bombay and the Malabar coast cotton, opium, pepper, sandal-wood, putchick, shark-fins, libanum, *elephants' teeth, rhinoceros' horns*, pearls, cornelians, and beads, are imported. From the straits of Malacca and adjacent countries tin, pepper, betel-nut, rattans, sea-slug, and birds'-nests. The principal articles imported by the East-India Company are broad-cloths, long ells, camblets, silver, lead, and tin. The probity, punctuality, and credit of the East-India Company and their agents, is known to be such by the Chinese, that their goods are taken away, as to quantity and quality, for what they are declared in the invoice, and the bales with their mark pass in trade without examination, through many hands, and over an immense extent of country, and are never opened until they reach the shop of the person who sells for actual consumption. Various miscellaneous articles are imported also as private trade by the officers and commanders of the Company's ships, such as lead, skins and furs, cochineal, window glass, clocks and watches, from forty shillings to the highest prices, fine cutlery, hardware, looking-glasses, and coral. From the Eastern archipelago, besides the commodities already enumerated, rice, vegetable oils, cotton, tobacco, indigo, gold, tin, ivory, catechu, benzoin, pepper, cloves, mace, nutmegs, camphor, dry fish, and tortoise-shell.

The principal exports from Canton are tea, chinaware, gold in bars, sugar, sugar-candy, rhubarb, China root, snake root, sassaparilla, leather, tutenage, Japan copper, varnished and lacquered ware, drugs, leaf gold, utensils made of white and red copper, cast-iron, silk, raw and wrought, thread, nankins, mother-of-pearl, gamboge, quicksilver, allum, dammer, red lead, vermilion, furniture, toys, and a great variety of drugs. Nankins are made of Chinese cotton, in a particular province of the same name, and are exclusively a Chinese manufacture. The new teas seldom reach Canton before the month of November. The Russians are excluded from the sea-ports of China, because a trade is carried on with them on the frontier of Siberia at Kiatcha, and the Chinese *do not admit of two places of trade* with the same nation.

The glass beads and buttons worn by persons of rank in China are chiefly made at Venice, one of the feeble remnants of the great and almost exclusive trade which the Venetians *once carried on with the East*. The inhabitants of China make much use of spectacles, which are made at Canton: but the artists do not seem to understand the principle of optics, so as to form the eye-glasses of such convexities or concavities as to rectify the various defects of vision, but leave their customers to find out what suits them best. The Canton lapidaries cut diamonds, and their artists are extremely expert in imitating They mend, and even make watches, copy paintings, and colour drawings, with great success. They also make coarse silk stockings, and have long been celebrated for the toys known by the name of balancers and tumblers. They generally assay their gold at Canton with touch-needles, by which, it is said, they can detect so small a difference as one two-hundredth part of the mixture

Provisions and refreshments of all sorts are abundant here, and generally of an excellent quality; nor is the price exorbitant. Every description of vivres, dead or alive, is sold by weight. It is a curious fact, that the Chinese make no use of milk, either in its liquid, or in the shape of curds, butter, or cheese. Among the delicacies, however, of a Chinese market, horse-flesh, dogs, cats, hawks, and owls are to be seen; and at table bow-wow (dog) pies have frequently been eaten by Europeans, instead of minced quack quack (duck) pies, and pleased them mightily. The country is well supplied with fish from the numberless canals and rivers, and

the inhabitants breed also gold and silver fish, which are kept in large stock ponds, as well as in glass and china vases.

The lower orders of Chinese who engage as servants to Europeans, are extremely ready in acquiring a smattering of the English language, and fertile in inventions in making themselves intelligible to their employers. All the business at Canton with Europeans is transacted in a jargon of the English language. The sounds of such letters as B, D, R, and X, are utterly unknown and unpronounceable in China. Instead of these, they substitute some other letter, such as L for R, which occasions a Chinese vender of rice to offer for sale in English what is usually a very unmarketable commodity. The common Chinese salutation is "hou, poo hou," the literal meaning of which is "well, not well." The name Mandarin is unknown among the Chinese, Tunquinese, and Cochin Chinese, the word used by all these nations for a person in authority being quan. Mandarin is a Portuguese word, derived from the verb mandar, to command. No correct estimate of the population of Canton has ever been formed, but it is known to be very great.

The intercourse between Europe and China by the way of the Cape of Good Hope began in A.D. 1517, when Emanuel king of Portugal sent a fleet of eight ships to China with an ambassador, who was conveyed to Pekin, and obtained permission to establish a trade at Canton. About 1634 some ships from England visited Canton, but made a most inauspicious commencement, for a rupture and battle immediately took place; but peace being afterwards restored, the misunderstanding was attributed to the treachery of the Portuguese. In 1667 the Court of Directors, in their letter to their agent at Bantam in Java, desire him "to send home by their ships 100 pounds of the best tey (tea) he could get;" but the first importation of tea is supposed to have taken place in 1669, when two cannisters, containing 143½ pounds, were received by the way of Bantam, for it does not appear any direct intercourse then existed with China. In A.D. 1678 the Company imported 4,713 pounds of tea; but so large a quantity seems to have glutted the market, for the imports of tea for the six subsequent years amounted in all to only 410 pounds, purchased mostly at Surat and Madras. In 1680 we find the first notice of a ship sent direct by the East-India Company to China. In 1700 there were three ports open for the reception of English vessels, *viz.* Limpo, Amoy, and Canton. Since that period the British commerce with Canton has progressively increased, though it has occasionally met with temporary interruptions of no serious importance, and nothing approaching to a state of actual warfare. Such an event, with a nation whose political institutions are remarkable among those of Asiatic nations, or indeed any other, for the uncommon share of tranquillity they are found by long experience capable of maintaining, and for the security they afford to life and property, is highly to be deprecated, and every stimulant, from mercantile or military rapacity, to bring on such a catastrophe, ought most strenuously to be resisted by the British nation.

Reigning Dynasty of China.

Shun-che began to reign A.D. 1643. Founded the present Manchew Tartar dynasty by expelling the Ming, or Chinese dynasty.

Kang-hi, A.D. 1661, reigned sixty-one years.

Yung-ching, A.D. 1722, reigned thirteen years.

Kien-lung, A.D. 1735, reigned sixty years.

Kea-king, A.D. 1795, reigned twenty-five years.

Taou-kwang, A.D 1820 the reigning emperor in 1827.

The imperial title of the reigning emperor is Yuen hwuy, meaning "an original assemblage of natural beauties" (the Canton pronunciation is uno-fei). Immediately after his acces-

sion it was changed to Taou Kwang, which was fixed as the national designation, as the Chinese term it, or the imperial title of his present majesty. Taou means "eternal reason, or perfect good government;" Kwang, "light, lustre, or glory;" so that Taou Kwang may be rendered "reason illustrious."—(*Staunton, Barrow, Crawfurd, Davis, Milburn, Elmore, Dr. J. Johnson, Macpherson, Quarterly Review, &c.*)

CAPALUAN.—A small island, one of the Philippines, lying due south of the island of Luzon, distant four miles; lat. 13° 50′ N. In length it may be estimated at fourteen miles, by five the average breadth.

CAP AND BUTTON ISLES.—Two small isles in the straits of Sunda, the first lying in lat. 5° 58′ S., lon. 105° 48′ E.; the second in lat 5° 49′ S., and lon. 105° 48′ E. They appear to have originated from a subaqueous volcano, and the last contains two caverns where the edible bird's-nests, so much prized by the Chinese, are found.—(*Staunton, &c.*)

CAPUR SUNGUM.—A Brahmin village in the province of Bejapoor, district of Noorgool, situated near the Sungum, or junction of the rivers Krishna and Malpoorba, and conspicuous from its white buildings. The Sungum is covered with low jungle, and the ferry across the Krishna, usually frequented by travellers from Poona to Bellary, is at the Toonghree ghaut, immediately below where the great channel of the Krishna is about half a mile wide.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CARAMNASSA RIVER (*the destruction of pious works*).—A small river that separates the province of Bahar from that of Benares. On crossing this river from Bahar, the Bengal officers were formerly considered as having quitted the Company's territories, and received a batta or additional rate of pay, to defray the increased expenses to which they were subjected by their greater distance from the presidency.

By an ancient text the Hindoos were forbidden even to touch the waters of the Caramnassa; but the inhabitants on its banks claim an exemption, which is admitted by the other Hindoos, although their aversion to the Caramnassa continues as strong as ever. By the contact alone of its baleful waves, devotees suppose they lose the fruit and efficacy of their religious austerities and pilgrimages, and they always cross its waters with the greatest caution. Major Rennell thinks it is the Commenases of Arrian.—(*Wilford, Forster, &c.*)

CARAMPOONDY.—A town in the northern circars, division of Palnaud, fifty-five miles west by north from Guntoor; lat. 16° 24′ N., lon 79° 42′ E

CARANG ASSEM.—A town in the island of Bally, situated on the west side of the straits of Lombook; lat. 8° 28′ S., lon. 115° 25′ E. This place stands at the foot of the peak of Bally, in a populous and well cultivated country, and is the most considerable town on the island The anchorage is also good, and refreshments abundant.

CARANJA ISLE (*or Oorun*).—An island in the province of Aurungabad, between Bombay and main land, from which it is separated by a very narrow strait; lat. 86° 56′ N., lon. 72° 52′ E., five miles east from Bombay. To this island, which by the natives is named Oorun, convicts are sent from Bombay, and employed in cleaning tanks, repairing embankments, and keeping the roads in order. In 1813 the revenues of this small island amounted to 90,795 rupees; the charges to 15,662 rupees.

CARCULLA.—An open town in the province of Canara, which in 1800 contained above 200 houses, twenty-seven miles north by east from Mangalore. Lat. 13° 16′ N., lon. 75° 3′ E. Near this place are the ruins of the palace of the Byrasu Wodears (or chiefs) the most powerful of the former Jain rajas of Tulava or south Canara.

CARIMATA.—An island in the east-

ern seas, about thirty miles in circumference, lying off the west coast of Borneo, between the first and second degrees of south latitude. This island is high and woody, with a peak in the middle, generally cloud-capped. It is inhabited.

CARIMON JAVA.—A small island in the eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones; lat. 5° 45′ S., lon. 110° 15′ E. This is a high woody island, with a hill in the centre, where ships anchoring may procure wood and water. The Dutch formerly kept up a small establishment here, under a resident and officer's guard, which is probably still continued to prevent the visits of piratical prows.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

CARIMONS.—Two islands thus named situated in the straits of Malacca; lat 1° 5′ N., lon. 103° 30′ E. These isles are well situated to give a strong naval power the command of the straits, yet in 1819 they were uninhabited, and still covered with primeval forests. The northern section of the larger island is mountainous, but the southern, which occupies three-fourths of the whole, is low and swampy. The soil of the Little Carimon is hard clay, on a substratum of rock; yet some of the trees, especially the dammerlaut, attain a considerable size. The only harbour lies in the north-east quarter of the largest island, and is occasionally frequented by Malay and Buggess prows.—(*Ibbetson, &c.*)

CARLI.—A small village in the province of Aurungabad, about thirty miles N.W. from Poona, and opposite to the fort of Loghur, near to which are some remarkable mythological excavations, or cave temples. The chain of hills here runs east and west, but the excavated one protrudes at right angles, and the chief cave fronts due west. Besides the great cavern, there is a suite of apartments arranged in two tiers of stories, a rude unfinished work, more resembling a natural cavity than a cave temple; and also water cisterns cut in the rock. The temple is arched, and supported by pillars, with figures sculptured, representing elephants with riders for capitals. The length of the great cavern is 126 feet, and the breadth forty-six feet. The ribs of the roof are timber, and consequently cannot be supposed of equal age with the excavations; they are still clean, and in good repair. No figures of the deity are to be found within the pagoda, nor any visible object of devotion except the mystic umbrella; but the walls of the vestibule are covered with carvings in *alto relievo* of elephants, of human figures of both sexes, and of Buddha, whose symbols predominate throughout. The Carli temples are considered by Mr Erskine to be decidedly Buddhist, there being no vestiges in any of them of the Tirt'hankar, or twenty-four saints of the Jains. Without attending to this circumstance the two classes of temples are in danger of being confounded, owing to the near resemblance of the images to the figures of Buddha as represented by his sect. The grand cavern here is still in high preservation, is a fine specimen of the vaulted Buddhist cathedral, and would make a noble temple for any religion.—(*Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Erskine, M. Graham, &c.*)

CARNAPRAYAGA.—A village in northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, situated at the confluence of the Alacananda with the Pindar river; lat. 30° 16′ N., lon. 79° 12′ E., thirty miles east by north from Serinagur, 2,560 feet above the level of the sea. This is one of the five prayagas, or holy junctions, mentioned in the shastras, and considered the third in respect to religious importance. In 1809 the village consisted only of six or eight houses, with a math or shrine, in which the image of Raja Carna was placed.—(*Raper, &c.*)

CARNATIC.

(*Carnataca*).

A large province in the south of India, denominated the Carnatic by Europeans, and comprehending the

former dominions and dependencies of the Arcot Nabobs, and extending from the eighth to the sixteenth degrees of north latitude. The northern boundary commences at the southern frontier of the Guntoor circar, defined by the small river Gundigama, which falls into the sea at Montapilly. From hence it stretches south to Cape Comorin a distance of 560 miles, but with unequal breadth, the average being about seventy-five miles.

The division south of the river Coleroon is called the Southern Carnatic, and was rather tributary to the nabobs of Arcot than a substantive possession. Prior to the British sovereignty it was occupied by numberless rajas, poligars, and other petty chieftains, and partitioned into the districts of Tinnevelly, Madura, Marawa, the poligars' territory, and part of Trichinopoly and Tanjore. The principal towns are Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Tranquebar, Negapatam, Tinnevelly, and Nagore.

The central Carnatic extends from the Coleroon to the Pennar river, and contained the residue of Trichinopoly, and the subdivisions of Volconda, Palamcotta, Ginjee, Wandiwash, Conjee, Vellore, Chingleput, Chandgherry, Serdamilly, and a section of Nellore; the chief towns being Madras, Pondicherry, Arcot, Wallajabad, Vellore, Conjeveram, Chingleput, Ginjee, Pulicat, Chandgherry, and Nellore.

The Northern Carnatic extends from the river Pennar to the river Gundigama and the Guntoor circar, and included the remainder of Nellore, Angole, and some smaller sections; the chief towns being Angole, Carwaree, and Saumgaum. In ancient times this last tract formed part of the Hindoo geographical division of Andhra, which reached to the Godavery, and the sovereigns of which, about the beginning of the Christian era, were very powerful in India.

The principal rivers are the Panaur, Palaur (*aur* and *aroo* signifying river), Cavery, and Vaygaroo, all of which have their sources in the table-land above the ghauts. The vast height of these mountains, and their great extent, not only fix the boundaries of the two Carnatics above and below the ghauts, but by stopping the course of the winds, likewise divide the seasons. The climate of the lower Carnatic may be considered one of the hottest in India; for although somewhat relieved on the coast by the prevalence of the sea and land breezes, yet at the distance of ten or twelve miles inland the sea breeze arrives late in the evening, and much heated by passing over the intervening tract. It is common in May, June, and July, to have occasional showers, and at some period of that time to have three or four days of heavy rain, which cools the air, and allows the cultivation of dry grain to be prosecuted; the weather in July, though hot, is cloudy, with strong westerly winds.

The soil of the Carnatic near the sea is composed of sand and loam, sparingly intermixed with the remains of marine animals. The inland parts contain hills of syenite, with a very small proportion of feltspar, the whole soil of the province appearing to consist of the debris of disintegrated syenite mountains. According to local circumstances, it is either a loam mixed with sand and gravel, and strongly impregnated with iron; or in low and wet places, a stiff red loam mixed with vegetable earth and fine sand; on eminences it is sand and gravel; it also contains much common salt, which in dry weather appears on the surface as a saline efflorescence. Near to Madras the soil is a heavy, sterile, salt loam; along the sea-coast and for some miles inland, at certain depths, marine productions, such as oyster and cockle-shells, are found. Trees will not thrive in the saline soil near Madras, which, however, does not extend further than the mount called Little St. Thomas, from whence to Vellore the surface is sandy, and nearly as poor as in the neighbourhood of Madras, but more free from saline impregnation.

The general division of the country

is into high and low lands; in the first, all kinds of small grain being cultivated, in the last, rice. In such districts as have not the advantage of being traversed by considerable rivers, or in parts where water cannot be conveyed from these to the adjacent fields, tanks are constructed, which being filled during the periodical rains, furnish water for the rice fields during the dry season. Some of these are of great extent, and were originally made by enclosing low and deep spots of ground with a strong mound of earth; others of less magnitude, for the use of temples, villages, or gardens, are of a quadrangular form, lined with stone, and descending by regular steps from the margin to the bottom. Raggy is the small grain most cultivated, as it meets a ready market every where among the poorer classes, whose chief subsistence it is. Sugar is only cultivated in small quantities, the soil not being rich enough for the cane; and indigo is also cultivated, but not for exportation. The cotton chiefly raised is the common dwarf kind (the *gossypium herbaceum*); famines and scarcities are much more frequent in the Carnatic and south of India than in the Bengal provinces, but less so than formerly.

The only trees that grow spontaneously on the barren spots of this province are the common bread tree (*melia azadirachta*), and the robinia mitis, an East-Indian tree of lofty growth, which flourishes equally on the arid hills of the Carnatic and on the muddy banks of the Ganges. The river water, after the rains, is reckoned the best for irrigation, and next to it the tank water; that drawn from wells is called salt by the natives, although the quantity of real muriate of soda held in solution be very small. Springs issuing from the surface are scarcely ever seen on the plains, but are frequent on the mountains and hilly parts.

In the towns and villages along the principal high roads are choultries, in the native language *chauvadi*, from whence the English word is derived; the smaller ones are single square rooms, open towards the street, where the roof is supported by stout square pillars; in the walls are excavations for lamps, but no windows. The large choultries are handsome and extensive buildings, erected and endowed by the munificence of a prince, the generosity or desire of fame of some rich individual, or, not uncommonly, in the performance of some religious vow. A Brahmin resides near, who furnishes the traveller with food, water, and a mat to lie on, and contiguous is a tank or well for the pilgrims to perform their ablutions. Every where within forty or fifty miles such useful structures are common, having been erected by rich merchants of that city, but are generally kept in so dirty a condition, as to be disgusting to Europeans; the adjacent tank or pond is equally filthy: for although the natives appear less capable of supporting thirst than Europeans, they are perfectly indifferent as to the purity of the liquid which they swallow, whether turbid or clear.

There are few districts can exhibit so many large temples and other public monuments of former wealth and civilization as the Carnatic, where, however, almost all the large temples are built after the same model. A large area, commonly of a square form, is enclosed by a wall fifteen or twenty feet high, in the centre of which stands the temple, which, as if intended to be concealed from public view, is seldom raised above the surrounding wall; in the middle of one or more sides of the wall is a gateway, over which a high tower is built, not designed for defence, but as a historical monument of the god to whom it is dedicated, symbolizing his attributes, and representing his adventures. Formerly there were an astonishing number of forts and fortresses throughout the Carnatic, mostly of a square form; but they are now, in consequence of the long internal tranquillity, rapidly crumbling to pieces; but the natural strength of the positions selected for their construction will ever continue, and point out to future ages the site of many an extinct

stronghold, famous in military story. Towns and villages in an open plain are but of a day's duration compared with fortresses, especially if the latter derive any share of their importance from the natural strength of their local situation.

The great mass of population in this extensive province profess the Hindoo Brahminical doctrines, the Mahomedans in comparison being thinly scattered over the country, except at the nabob's court, and in a few other places. In 1785 there were reckoned above 20,000 Christians of the Roman Catholic persuasion, and the Christians of all denominations probably amount to more than double that number. At present, in the Carnatic, a large proportion of the Brahmins follow secular professions, and almost entirely fill the subordinate revenue and judicial offices, besides acting as messengers and keepers of choultries. Much of the land is rented by them, but, like the Jews, they seldom put their hands to actual labour, and never hold the plough, having their farms cultivated by slaves of the inferior Sudra castes, and the Punchum Bundam, who, although the most industrious labourers in the country, are for the most part slaves. Indeed, so sensible was Hyder of their value, that during his invasions this was the caste he principally endeavoured to carry away. There are a few Mahomedan farmers who possess slaves, but the most numerous class of farmers is composed of Sudras, some of whom possess slaves, but many of them perform all agricultural operations with their own hands.

A great majority of Brahmins in the lower Carnatic are of the Smartial sect, who are votaries of Siva and followers of Sankara Acharya. Throughout both Carnatics, except at Madras, the Brahmins appropriate a particular quarter of the town to themselves, and generally that which is best fortified. A Sudra is not permitted to dwell in the same street with a Brahmin, while he exacts the same deference from a Whalliaru Pariar, and other low castes, who are expelled to wretched huts in the suburbs. Indeed, notwithstanding the great resort of Europeans and other foreigners to the Carnatic, the genuine Hindoo manners are retained by a vast majority of the inhabitants in wonderful purity. If any person leave the smoke of his own tobacco at Madras, and goes to the nearest Hindoo village, not a mile in the country, he is as much removed from European customs and manners as if he were in the centre of Hindostan.

The first irruption of the Mahomedans into the Carnatic was in A.D. 1310, while Allah ud Deen, the scourge of the Hindoos, reigned on the Delhi throne, on which occasion he defeated Belal Deo, the Hindoo sovereign of Carnata. After this period occasional tribute was exacted by the Deccany princes, and subsequently by the Mogul emperors, but actual possession does not appear to have been taken until the conclusion of Aurengzebe's reign, in the commencement of the eighteenth century. In 1717 Nizam ul Mulk obtained the Mogul conquests in the Deccan and south of India, which from that date were severed from the Delhi throne.

In 1743 Anwar ud Deen was appointed Nabob of the Carnatic, and of its capital Arcot, by Nizam ul Mulk, then soubahdar of the Deccan; and in 1754, after a well-fought contest between the different claimants, aided respectively by the French and English East-India Companies, his son, Mahomed Ali, was left in possession of that portion of the Carnatic recovered for him by the British arms. In 1763 it was again surrendered to the Nabob Mahomed Ali, after having been a second time wrested from the French and their allies, the war having lasted with little cessation for fifteen years; and finally, in 1783, the British had to re-conquer it from Hyder and his son Tippoo.

Mahomed Ali died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son Oomdut ul Omra, who died in 1801. Azim ul Omra was then raised to the throne,

on which he continued until 1819, when he died of the prevailing epidemic; and was succeeded by Auzum Jah, his eldest legitimate son, who was proclaimed soubahdar of the Carnatic. In 1801 the whole of the possessions of the Nabob of the Carnatic, with the exception of a small portion reserved by him as household lands, were transferred to the British government by treaty. Of the tracts situated in the Southern Carnatic, consisting of Tinnevelly and the Manapar pollams, and the two Marawars of Ramnad and Shevagunga, and the western pollams, the Madras presidency had collected the tribute since 1792. In 1795, the Ramnad pollams came directly under the charge and management of the British government. The remaining portion of the Carnatic territories, acquired in 1801, consisted of the districts of Palnaud, Nellore, Angole, the province of Arcot, the pollams of Chittoor, and the divisions of Sativaid, Tinnevelly, and Madura

By the conditions of the treaty the nabob reserved to himself a clear annual revenue of from two to three lacks of pagodas, unencumbered by any charge, the British government undertaking to support an efficient civil and military establishment. A liberal settlement was also provided for the other branches of Mahomed Ali's family, and the British government undertook to investigate and adjust the real and fictitious claims advanced against his estate, for the liquidation of which a fund amounting to 340,000 pagodas annually was appropriated. Commissioners at home and abroad with adequate establishments, were in consequence appointed, and the Carnatic debts have been under scrutiny ever since 1805, but, owing to the perplexed nature of the investigation, and the number of forged documents produced, it has not yet been concluded.

Up to the 6th December 1828, the aggregate of absolute adjudications in favour of parties was	£2,528,065
Aggregate of provisional adjudications in favour of parties	486
	£2,528,552
Aggregate of absolute adjudications against the parties, including the portions disallowed on claims favourably adjucated	27,342,706
	£29,871,258
Estimated balance of the amount of claims remaining to be adjudicated, exclusive of the amount of a considerble number of small claims....................	469,877
	£30,341,136

The custom of usurious loans by Europeans to native princes has long been reprobated by the British government, and its sanction withheld, being convinced that nothing could more effectually restrain the ruinous practice, than a steady determination on the part of the Court of Directors, and of their government in India, to resist every arrangement, however specious, which might be proposed for their liquidation.

On the transfer of the province as above narrated, it was subdivided into the following collectorates, which comprehend also a few sections from the upper Carnatic, viz

1. Nellore and Angole, including part of the western pollams or zemindaries.

2. The northern division of Arcot, including Sativaid, Pulicat, Coongoody in the Barramahal, part of Balaghaut, and the western pollams or zemindaries.

3. Chingleput, or the jaghire.

4. The southern division of Arcot, including Cudalore and Pondicherry.

5. Trichinopoly.

6. Tanjore.

7. Madura, including Dindigul, the Manapar pollams, Ramnad, and Shevagunga, partly in the Carnatic and partly in the Mysore.

8. Tinnevelly in the southern Carnatic.—(*F. Buchanan, Heyne, 5th Report, Sir T. Munro, Sir J. Malcolm, J. Grant, Rennell, Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

CARNICOBAR ISLE. — The most northerly of the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; lat. 9° 8′ N., lon. 92° 53′ E. This island is low, of a round figure, about forty miles in circumference, and appears at a distance to be entirely covered with trees. The soil is a black kind of clay, and marshy, but produces with little care most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, plantains, cocoa-nuts, excellent yams, and a root named cachee. The only quadrupeds are hogs, dogs, large rats, and guanos. There is a great plenty of timber, and some of it remarkably large. The natives require money for their provisions, and also expect knives, handkerchiefs, and other useful articles as presents. Ships calling here may obtain pigs, fowls, cocoa-nuts, betel-nut, papaws, plantains, limes, and shaddocks. Snakes abound, and a species of ginger grows wild in the woods.

The natives are low in stature, but well-made, and surprisingly active. They are copper-coloured, with a cast of the Malay; the females are extremely ugly. They are naturally gay and lively, and drink arrack, when they can get it, in large quantities. Many of them speak broken English, mixed with Portuguese. Their hogs are fat, being fed on cocoa-nuts, which is the universal food for man, beast, and fowl. Their houses resemble bee-hives raised on posts, and are built on the beach, fifteen and twenty together. The entry is through a trap-door below. They have no manufactures of any kind, procuring clothing and other articles from ships in barter for cocoa-nuts, live-stock, and fruit.

When a man dies, all his goods are burned with him, which prevents disputes among his heirs. On this occasion his wife must conform to custom, by having a joint cut off from one of her fingers, and if she declines the amputation she must submit to have a deep notch cut in one of the posts of her house. Their religion is imperfectly understood, but seems to have no affinity with that of any of the circumjacent nations. A perfect equality appears to subsist among them; the more aged are respected, but exercise no coercive authority. About A.D. 1760 the Danes formed a settlement in Carnicobar, to which they conveyed a number of cannon from Tranquebar, and named New Denmark; but the pestilential nature of the climate, after the death of missionary after missionary, compelled them to abandon it.—(*G. Hamilton, Lord Valentia, Haensel, &c.*)

CAROOR.—A town in the province of Coimbatoor, situated on the north side of the Amaravati river, and not far from the Cavery, fifty-two miles W. by N. from Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 53′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. At a little distance from the town is a neat fort, with a large temple, the spire over the gateway of which is eighty-eight feet high, length at the base sixty-four feet, breadth fifty-two feet. The pagoda was destroyed by mines when besieged by Colonel Long in 1781. The supply of water in the Amaravati does not last the whole year, so that in some seasons there is only one crop of rice. This river was the ancient boundary between the dominions of Mysore and Trichinopoly, and this conterminal position under the security of a strong fort, and the command of a rich district, rendered it an emporium of great commercial resort. It was taken during the Carnatic wars of 1760, and probably before that event no European troops had ever advanced so far west inland. It is seventy-four miles from the western ghauts, and thirty from the Pilny mountains.—(*F. Buchanan, A. H. Hamilton, Orme, &c.*)

CARRAMUNGALUM.—A village situated in one of the wildest and most beautiful regions of the Barramahal, with a cluster of antique *Hindoo* buildings on the adjacent rocks;

about twenty-two miles travelling distance south-east from Ryacotta.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CARRAR.—A considerable town in the province of Bejapoor, eighty-six miles S. by E. from Poona; lat. 17° 20′ N., lon. 74° 22′ E. Near the centre are two pagodas, of great height and elegant workmanship, and also a small fort. From hence to Satara is a pleasant valley, intersected by many streams, and well-peopled and cultivated.—(*Moor, &c.*)

CARRIANS (*Karians, or Karaen*).—This word appears to be used as an appellation for the simple aboriginal tribes spread over India east in the Ganges, and more especially of Pegu, Martaban, Tenasserim, the British provinces south of Rangoon and Siam, few being found north of Prome in Pegu. Although comprehended under the general name of Carrians, some of them differ from each other as much as they do from the Burmese; and in what they differ from the Kayn tribe, except as to degree of civilization, has not yet been discriminated. They are most numerous in Pegu, where, during the occupation of that province by the British, they composed one-third of the inhabitants south of Prome. Their language is mixed with that of the district in which they reside; but it is said to be essentially an original tongue The Carrians of the Galadzet hills are an innocent, but hideous-looking race of mountaineers, from the practice that prevails of tattooing their faces, especially the females, who manage (it is said intentionally) to render themselves such objects of horror and disgust, that none but a Carrian can approach them.

They are a simple, rude people, speaking a distinct language, and entertaining rude notions of religion. Their villages form a select community, from which they exclude all other sects, and they never reside in a city, intermingle, or marry with strangers. They profess and strictly observe universal peace, not engaging in war, or taking any part in contests for dominion; a system that necessarily places them in subjection to the ruling power of the day. They are consequently mere slaves of the soil, living in wretched hamlets, taxed and oppressed by the Burmese, who consider them an inferior race. They are exempted from the payment of land-tax and other imposts, the whole being compounded for by the payment of a heavy poll, or rather family tax. They are, however, exempt from the conscription laws, and are never called out on military service.

The Carrians, although the quietest, most timorous, and harmless people in the world, possess strong and robust frames, greatly excelling in these respects both the Burmese and Peguers, who are not deficient. The cultivation in Pegu and the southern provinces of Ava is almost entirely left to them, and they annually furnish large quantities of grain to the public arsenals. Like the Burmese they are fond of ardent spirits, and, generally speaking, will do more for a glass of rum or arrack than for a sum of money. They have traditional maxims of jurisprudence for the internal government of their little communities, but are without any written laws. One of them, on being interrogated, admitted their state of ignorance, and assigned as a reason, that God once wrote his laws and commands on the skin of a buffalo, and called up all the nations of the earth to come and take a copy, which they all obeyed except the Carrians, who had no leisure.—(*Symes, Lieut. Lowe, Snodgrass, Crawfurd, &c.*)

CARRUNJA.—A town in the province of Berar, forty-five miles S. by E. from Ellichpoor. Lat. 20° 33′ N., lon 77° 44′ E.

CARTASURA.—The ruins of a town in Java, which towards the end of the seventeenth century was the capital of the island, the seat of government having been removed to this place by the Soosoohoonan in A D. 1680 from Mataram. In 1742 Cartasura was in its turn abandoned, and the seat of

government fixed at Solo or Sura-carta. Lat. 7° 35′ S., lon. 110° 45′ E., six miles W. from Solo.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Cartinaad (*or Cadutinada.*)—A small district in the Malabar province, the raja of which in 1800 resided at Cutiporam. It is tolerably well cultivated, and is naturally a rich country, but does not produce grain sufficient for the sustenance of its inhabitants. The higher parts of the hills are overgrown with wood, which the Nairs formerly encouraged, as affording them protection against invaders. Among the hills which form the lower portions of the ghauts in Cartinaad, and other northern districts of Malayavar, are certain spots that naturally produce cardamoms.

The female Nairs in this part of the country, while children, go through the ceremony of marriage with Nambouries and Nairs; but here, as well as in the south, the man and wife never cohabit. A Nair here is not astonished when asked who his father is, and a man has as much certainty that the children born in his house are his own, as a European husband has; yet such is the perversity of custom, that he would be considered as unnatural, were he to have as much affection for his own children as for those of his sister, which he may perhaps never have seen. In 1761 the Bombay presidency concluded a treaty with the chief of this country for the purchase of pepper, in which document he is styled King of Cartenaddu.—(*F. Buchanan, Treaties, &c.*)

Carwar.—A town in the province of Canara, fifty-five miles S. by E. from Goa. Lat. 14° 50′ N., lon. 74° 11′ E. This was formerly a noted seat of European commerce, the English East-India Company having had a factory here so early as 1663, but during Tippoo's reign the place went to total ruin. It stands in that portion of the Concan comprehended by British judicial arrangements in the district of Canara. The dialect of the Concan is used by the natives of Carwar in their own houses, but having been long subject to Bejapoor, most of them can also speak the Maharatta.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CASHMERE.

(*Casmira*).

The valley of Cashmere is comprehended between the 34th and 35th degrees of north latitude, and surrounded by lofty mountains which separate it from Little Tibet on the north; from Ladack on the east; from Lahore on the south; and Puckely on the west. On the north-west a branch of the Speen, or White Caffrees, approaches Cashmere. The valley is of an elliptic form, and widens gradually to Islamabad, where the breadth is about forty miles, which is continued with little variation to the town of Sompre, whence the mountains, by a regular inclination to the westward, come to a point, and separate Cashmere from Muzifferabad. Including the surrounding mountains, Cashmere may be estimated at 110 miles in length by sixty the extreme breadth; the figure, a broad oval. The limits of Cashmere towards the west, adjoining Muzifferabad, are terminated by a low thick wood, the edge of which is skirted by a rivulet; and on the other side rises a chain of lofty mountains stretching to the north and south. There are seven passes into the province, four from the south, one from the west, and the remaining two from the north. That of Bember is the best, but that of Muzifferabad is the most frequented. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, Cashmere is described as follows:

" The soubah of Cashmere is situated partly in the third and partly in the fourth climate. It is composed of Cashmere, Bember, Sewad, Bijore, Candahar, and Zabulistan (Cabul). Formerly it had Ghizni, but now it has Cabul for its capital. The length from Kimberdine to Kishengunge is 120 coss, and the breadth from ten to twenty-five coss. On the

east lies Peeristan and the river Chinaub; on the south-east Bankul, and the mountains of Jummoo; on the north-east great Tibet; on the west Puckoli and Kishengunge; on the south-west the territory of Gucker; and on the north-west Little Tibet. It is encompassed on all sides by lofty mountains. There are twenty-six roads into Hindustan, but those of Bember and Puckoli are the best, being passable for horses.

"The whole of Cashmere represents a garden in perpetual spring, and the fortifications with which nature has furnished it are of astonishing height. The water is remarkably good, and the cataracts magnificent. It rains and snows here at the same season, as in Tartary and Persia; and during the periodical rains in Hindostan, light showers also fall here. The land is partly marshy, the rest well watered by streams and lakes. Violets, roses, narcissuses, and innumerable other flowers grow wild. Earthquakes are very frequent, on which account the houses are built of wood. The inhabitants subsist chiefly on rice, fresh and dried fish and vegetables, and they drink wine. The horses are small but hardy; they breed neither camels nor elephants, both being unsuited to the nature of the country. In their cities and towns are neither snakes, scorpions, nor other venomous reptiles; but the country in general abounds with flies, gnats, bugs, and lice. Most of the trade of the country is carried on by water, but great burthens are also transported on men's shoulders.

"The Cashmerians have a language of their own, but their books are written in the Sanscrit tongue, although the characters be sometimes Cashmerian. They write chiefly upon tooz, which is the bark of a tree. The Mahomedans are partly Sunnies, and others are of the sects of Ali and Noorbukshay. There are many delightful singers, but they want variety. The Hindoos regard the whole of Cashmere as holy land; forty-five places are dedicated to Siva; sixty-four to Vishnu; three to Brahma; and twenty-two to Durga, the wife of Siva. In 700 places the figures of snakes are carved, which they also worship.

"Although government formerly was said to take only a third of the produce of the soil, yet in fact the husbandman was not left in the enjoyment of nearly one-third. His Majesty (Acber) has now commanded that the crops shall be equally divided between the husbandman and the state. There are but few troops in Cashmere, the native standing army being only 4,892 cavalry, and 92,400 infantry.

"The ancients divided Cashmere into two parts, calling the eastern division Meraje, and the western Camraje. In the history of Cashmere, it is said, that in the early ages of the world all Cashmere, except the mountains, was covered with water and then named Suttysir. Sutty is one of the names of Siva's wife, and sir signifies a reservoir. In the year of the Hijera 948 (A.D. 1541) Mirza Hyder was sent against Cashmere by the Emperor Humayoon, and by the help of some of the natives, conquered the whole of that country and part of Great Tibet."

Such is the description of this country given as it existed 246 years ago, since which period it has probably in every respect greatly retrograded.

The lower range of hills that surround Cashmere are of moderate height, and covered with trees and verdure, affording excellent pasturage for all sorts of cattle and wild graminivorous animals, and containing none of the larger and more ferocious carnivorous quadrupeds, such as lions and tigers. Beyond this range are mountains of more stupendous elevation, whose snow-clad tops, soaring above the clouds and fogs, appear perpetually bright and luminous. By ascending from the plains up the mountains, any degree of cold may be attained. From these mountains flow innumerable cascades and rivulets, which the inhabitants conduct through their rice fields for the purposes of irrigation, and in their course

form small lakes and canals, the junction of which afterwards creates streams navigable for boats of burthen, even within the limits of Cashmere; and increasing as they flow southward, at last form the Jhylum or Hydaspes, one of the largest rivers that fertilize Hindostan. Among these mountains are many romantic valleys, the inhabitants of which have scarcely any communication with those of the plains, and on account of their poverty and inaccessible residence, have never been subjugated by any of the conquerors that have devastated Cashmere. The religion of these primitive tribes is unknown, but it is probably some modification of the Brahminical or Buddhist tenets.

The valley of Cashmere is celebrated throughout Asia for the romantic beauty of its situation, the fertility of its soil, and the temperature of its atmosphere. It is generally of a level surface, and being copiously watered, yields abundant crops of rice, which is the common food of the inhabitants. The facility of procuring water insures the crop against the injuries of a drought, and the mildness of the climate against the scorching rays of the sun. Near the base of one of the surrounding hills, where the land is higher, wheat, barley, and various other grains are cultivated. In this province are found most of the plants, fruits, flowers, and forest trees common to Europe, particularly the apple, pear, plum, apricot, and nut trees, and abundance of grapes; and in the gardens are many kitchen herbs peculiar to cold countries. A superior sort of saffron is cultivated in the plains, and iron of an excellent quality is found in the mountains. The sengerah, or water nut, which grows in the lakes, forms a considerable portion of the food of the lower classes. Many lakes are spread over the country, and there is a tradition which appearances tend to confirm, that the Cashmere valley was once the bed of a large lake. By Hindoo historians the draining of these waters is ascribed to the Muni, or saint, Casyapa, the son of Marichi, the son of Brahma (the Cashef or Casheb of the Mahomedans) which he effected by opening a passage for the Hydaspes through the mountains of Baramouleh, which might possibly also have happened from some natural convulsion. Besides this river, which traverses the province from east to west, there are numberless mountain streams supplied by the rains, which fall with great violence from June to October, forming many cascades and small cataracts, which are precipitated into the valley, where the periodical rains are described as only descending in gentle showers.

The wealth and fame of Cashmere have greatly arisen from the manufacture of shawls, the wool of which is not the growth of the country, but brought from the high table-land of Tibet, where alone the shawl goat producing it will thrive. Neither the Delhi emperors, who made various attempts to introduce this species of goat into upper Hindostan, nor the sovereigns of Persia, whose dominions were still more favourably situated, have ever succeeded in procuring wool of an equally fine quality with that of Tibet. The Persian shawl, from the wool of Kerman, comes nearer the Cashmere shawl than the English. This raw material of the Cashmere shawl is rather a down than a wool, being protected by the exterior coarse hair. It is originally of a dark grey colour, and is bleached in Cashmere by the help of a preparation of rice flour. That from Rodauk is the best, and the price in Cashmere is from ten to twenty rupees per turruk, a weight supposed equal to twelve pounds, and the whitest is most in demand. It is difficult to fix, with any accuracy, the number of shawls manufactured in the year. The number of looms employed, each occupying three men, is said to be 16,000. Supposing, on an average, five shawls of all descriptions made at each shop or loom annually, the total would amount to 80,000, which is probably not very remote from the truth.

The Cashmerians also fabricate the best writing paper of the East, which was formerly an article of extensive traffic, as were also its lacquered ware, cutlery, and sugar; but trade of all sorts is now in a very languid state. A wine resembling Madeira is manufactured in this province, and a spirituous liquor is also distilled from the grape. Amritsir in Lahore, the Seik capital, is at present the grand emporium for the shawls and saffron of Cashmere; but in 1819 a manufacture of the first, with wool imported direct from Tibet, was established by an enterprizing native merchant in the city of Delhi. About twenty years ago Russian merchants penetrated from the north into Cashmere with their goods, by the route of Yarkund. The boats of Cashmere are long and narrow, and moved with paddles. The country being much intersected by streams navigable for small vessels, might greatly benefit by such a commodious internal conveyance, under a better government, but of this there is at present but little prospect.

In the time of Aurengzebe, the revenue collected (probably the clear revenue) in Cashmere, was three and a quarter lacks of rupees per annum; in 1783 the Afghan governor, on the part of the Cabul sovereign, extorted above twenty lacks. In 1809 the gross revenue was said to be 46,26,300 rupees, or about half a million sterling. Since that date the province has been in such a state of unceasing anarchy, that it is impossible to form any rational estimate of its revenue. The governor of Cashmere, while under the Cabul king, had constantly at his disposal a force of 5,400 horse and 3,200 foot; but the Afghan soldiers serving in Cashmere have always degenerated, and become effeminate, luxurious, and rebellious. The native Cashmerians of the valley, in all ages, have been reckoned altogether unfit for soldiers.

The mountains surrounding this province are inhabited by tribes which formerly acknowledged a sort of dependence on the Afghans, but scarcely any thing is known about them. Besides their alpine districts, the chiefs hold land in the valley, which have probably been given them to strengthen the fervour of their loyalty and secure their obedience. They furnish some troops to the governor, and when he is strong enough to enforce payment, they yield him some revenue. On the north of Cashmere is a chief whom the natives dignify with the title of Raja of Little Tibet, of which, however, he probably possesses but a small portion. The lofty mountains between Cashmere and Ladack have been but little explored: but caravans of merchants pass regularly between the two cities, bringing shawl-wool from the latter, and offering, to an adventurous European well versed in the native languages, an obvious opportunity of tracing the course of the Indus closer to its sources than has yet been attempted. In fact, the terra incognita of this river now lies between Ladack and Gortope, a direct distance of about 310 miles, but much more following the course of the stream.

The natives of Cashmere are a stout well-formed people, and their complexions, what in France or Spain would be termed brunette. They are naturally gay and lively, eager in the pursuit of wealth, accounted much more acute and intriguing than the natives of Hindostan generally, and proverbially liars. They are also much addicted to literature, poetry, and drinking, and the commonalty remarkably ingenious in cabinet-work and other fabrications. Their language is of Sanscrit origin, modified by time and the introduction of some foreign phrases In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer examined by the missionaries, twenty-five words out of thirty-two were found to be radically the same with those occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, some of them, however, considerably altered. Their songs are composed in Persic, which they consider more harmonious. In appearance they have not the slightest resemblance to their Tartarian neigh-

bours, who are an ugly race; on the contrary, the Cashmerian females have been long celebrated for their beauty and fair complexions, and much sought after for wives and concubines by the Mogul nobility of Delhi. Although extremely fertile and productive, the country is not thickly inhabited, on account of the deplorable government, or rather anarchy, to which it has been so long subjected. The aggregate is probably under 600,000; nor could any thing approaching this number be assigned, but for the great population, probably much exaggerated, said to be contained in the capital. By the Hindoos all Cashmere is reckoned holy land, and abounds with miraculous fountains; but although evidently sprung from a Hindoo stock, at present the Arabian faith greatly predominates.

It is probable the Buddhist doctrines were current here before the introduction of the Brahminical. It may be conjectured that the inhabitants of Cashmere had originally an idolatrous system of their own, to which they superadded a few ill-defined gods and ceremonies borrowed from the Brahmins of the plains; that they were for a short time converted to Buddhism by their Tartar neighbours,* and finally to the doctrine of the Vedas by the Brahmins, to which they have since adhered; adoration being almost exclusively addressed to Siva, and his Sacti. Sultan Baber, in his memoirs, mentions a curious fact, which seems to throw some light on the ancient history and geography of Cashmere. He tells us that the hilly country along the upper course of the Sinde, or Hindus, was formerly inhabited by a race of men named Kas, and he supposes that from a corruption of the name the country of Cashmere was so called, as being the country of the Kas, the denomination mir or mere being still united with the names of several geographical divisions, such as Jesselmere, Ajmeer, &c.

According to tradition, the valley of Cashmere was drained and colonized by Casyapa, about 2,666 years before the commencement of the Christian era, from which date there is a regular chronological table of kings, down to its conquest by the Mahomedans. The period of this subjugation, however, is uncertain, but it was attacked and ravaged by the Mahmood of Ghizni so early as A.D. 1012. It was afterwards governed in a long succession by a race of Tartar princes of the Chug, or Chagatay tribe, until 1586, when it was subdued by Acber, and continued subject to the Moguls of Delhi until the time of Ahmed Shah Abdali of Cabul, to which kingdom, until recently, it continued annexed. When the short-lived dynasty of the Abdalis began to totter, the governor of Cashmere was one of the first to claim the title, as he had long performed the functions of an independent prince. Accordingly, in 1809, Mahomed Azim Khan, the soubahdar of the province, threw off the yoke, and set the power of his legitimate sovereign at defiance. In 1816 a powerful army from Cabul attempted its recovery, but, owing to treachery, was compelled to retreat with damage and disgrace. In 1819, Runjeet Singh of Lahore despatched an army against it under the command of Dewan Chund, which effected the conquest of the city of Cashmere, and some portions of the country in its immediate vicinity. But he does not seem to have retained it long, as in 1820 two persons arrived at Delhi, charged by the chief of Cashmere, Mahomed Azim Khan, with overtures for a treaty of alliance, and earnestly requesting that Cashmere might be taken under the protection of the British government. This proposal, however, like many others from various parts of India, was not assented to.—(*Elphinstone, Forster, Wilson, Abul Fazel, Bernier, Moorcroft, &c.*)

CASHMERE (*or Serinagur*).—The capital of the Cashmere province, situated in lat. 33° 23′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Serinagur, the capital of Cashmere, is four fursungs

in length. The last-mentioned one is dry during a great part of the year, and the Mar is sometimes so shallow that boats cannot pass through. This city has for ages been in a flourishing state, and here shawls are manufactured and other fine woollen stuffs. On the east side of the city is a high hill, called the mountain of Soliman, and adjoining are two lakes, which are always full."

The modern town of Cashmere was formerly known by the name of Serinagur, but now by that of the province. It extends about three miles on each side of the Jhylum or Hydaspes, over which there are four or five wooden bridges, and it occupies in some part of its breadth, which is unequal, about two miles. Many of the houses are two and three stories high, slightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On the wooden roof a covering of earth is laid which contributes to the warmth of the house during the winter, and in summer is planted with flowers. The streets are narrow, and choked up with the filth of the inhabitants, who are unclean to a proverb; neither are there any buildings worthy of remark. The governor resides in a fortress named Shereghur, occupying the south-eastern quarter of the city. The advantages this city enjoys of a mild salubrious air, and a river flowing through its centre, are much alloyed by its confined construction, and the extreme filthiness of the people. There are covered floating baths ranged along the sides of the river.

The lake of Cashmere, provincially named the Dall, has long been celebrated for its beauties. It stretches from the north-east quarter of the city in an oval circumference of five or six miles, and joins the Jhylum by a narrow channel near the suburbs. The northern view of the lake is terminated at the distance of twelve miles by a detached range of mountains, that slope from the centre to each angle; and from the base a spacious plain, preserved in constant verdure by numerous streams, extends with an easy declivity to the surface of the water. In the centre of the plain as it approaches the lake, one of the Delhi emperors, probably Shah Jehan, constructed a spacious garden named Shalimar. The numerous small islands in the lake have the effect of ornamenting the scenery.

Bernier, who visited this country in 1663, travelling in the suite of the Emperor Aurengzebe, gives a most interesting and romantic description of this city; but since the dismemberment of Cashmere from the Mogul empire, it has suffered many disasters. Notwithstanding, however, these causes of decay, it was by the natives in 1809, reckoned to contain from 150,000 to 200,000 inhabitants, and considered the largest and most populous city in the Afghan dominions. —(*Forster, Rennell, Abul Fazel, Bernier, Elphinstone, &c.*)

CASSAY.—A province of India beyond the Ganges, situated about the twenty-fourth degree of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Cachar and Assam, on the south by Ava west of the Kenduem river; on the west it has the Bengal districts of Tipera and Silhet; and on the east the Kathi or Casi Shan, and upper course of the Kenduem river. By Europeans it is called Meckley as well as Cassay, but neither of these names is used by the natives of the country, who call themselves Moitay; the Bengalese call them Muggaloos, which by Europeans has been turned into Meckley, and applied to the country. Kathi or Casi is the name given to this people by the Birmans, which has been taken for the name of the country, and corrupted into Cassay. The capital town is Munipoor, a term frequently used to denote the whole province, under which head further information will be found.

The Cassayers have a softness of countenance much more resembling the natives of Hindostan than the Birmans, with whom they have very little affinity, either in manners or appearance. Many of these people taken prisoners in the wars are now settled

in the neighbourhood of the Birman capital, where they exercise their superior skill and ingenuity in different branches of handicraft work. When invaded by the British in 1824, the province was found in a most desolate and depopulated state, and fast relapsing into barbarism, as well from the oppressive government of the Burmese, as from their own never-ending intestine feuds. The Moitays or Cassayers are worshippers of Vishnu; yet their language is said to be radically different from the Sanscrit. Their country may be considered the extreme limit of the Brahminical Hindoo sect to the eastward, as from thence the prevalence of the Buddhist doctrine in some shape is universal.

Formerly the gunsmiths of the Birman empire were all Cassayers, but their musquets and matchlocks were very defective. They are much superior in horsemanship to the natives of Ava, and on that account were the only cavalry employed with the Burmese armies, which consisted almost wholly of infantry. The music of the Cassayers, like the genuine airs (such as the boatmen's songs) of Bengal, is remarkably pleasant to a European

In the year 1754, when Alompra, the Burmese monarch, left the city of Ava to relieve Prome, he despatched a body of troops across the Kenduem to chastise the Cassayers, who had hitherto enjoyed only a temporary independence, when the contests of the Birman and Pegu states left them no leisure to enforce obedience. They were always ready to revolt, and as quickly reduced to submission. The Cassay raja, then residing at Munipoor, sued for peace, which was concluded on advantagous terms for the Birmans, and, as was the custom, a young man and young woman of the raja's kindred were delivered as hostages.

In 1757 Alompra again attacked the Cassayers, but was prevented completing their conquest by the revolt of the Peguers In 1765 Shembuan, the son of Alompra, invaded the Cassay country, and obtained a considerable booty, but appears to have intended nothing beyond a predatory excursion; but in 1774 he sent a formidable force against the Cassayers, which after a long and obstinate battle, took Munipoor, the raja having withdrawn to the Cornin hills, five days' journey north-west from that place. From this date Cassay remained subject to Ava until 1824, when the Burmese were expelled from Munipoor by a British detachment, and the territory was subsequently rendered wholly independent by the treaty of Yandaboo in 1825.—(*Symes, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CATINDUANES ISLE.—One of the Philippines, situated off the east coast of Luzon, lat. 15° N., lon. 124° 30′ E In length it may be estimated at thirty-six miles, by twenty the average breadth.

CATMANDOO (*Cashtamandir*). — The capital of Nepaul, and modern residence of the Gorkha Raja, which, according to barometrical measurement, stands 4,784 feet above the level of the Bengal plains; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 85′ E. This place is situated on the east side of the Bishenmutty, along which it extends about a mile; but its breadth in general does not exceed half a mile, and seldom more than a quarter of a mile. The name by which it is distinguished in ancient books is Goongoolpatan; the Newars call it Yendaise, and the Parbutties, or mountaineers, Cashtipoor: a name, it is said, derived from its numerous wooden temples, which are the common mandirs or mandibs occasionally met with in other quarters of India. Besides these there are many brick temples with three or four sloping roofs. Near the palace is the shrine of Tulasi Bhavani, who conjointly with Gorakhanath is the tutelar deity of the reigning family. There is no image, the deity being represented by a Yantra, or cabalistical figure; and in order to impress the multitude with awe, no person is permitted to approach the shrine except the Raja, the Ranny, their spiritual guide, and the officiating priest

The houses in Catmandoo are of brick or tile, with pitched or pent roofs towards the street. They are two, three, and four stories, but almost without exception of a mean appearance; even the raja's house, although large, being but a sorry building. The streets are as narrow, and nearly as filthy as those at Benares. The number of houses has been estimated at 5,000, and the total population at 20,000 persons.

The most remarkable mountain seen from hence is that of Dhaibun, distant about thirty-four geographical miles. According to calculation this mountain is 20,140 feet above the stations of Sambher, and the Queen's Gardens, near Catmandoo; which latter are 4,500 feet above the level of the sea. Another mountain, nearly in the position of one by Gen. Kirkpatrick named Cala Bhairava, has an elevation of 18,662 feet above Catmandoo, or 23,162 feet above the level of the sea. Both these mountains, and others in their vicinity, are visible from Patna, the first at a distance of 162 geographical miles, the second of 153 geogragraphical miles. Mountains in this direction still more remote are seen in the north-east quarter, at the prodigious distance of 195 geographical miles from Patna. In the neighbourhood of Catmandoo the summit of Mount Chandragiri is 3,682 feet above the city, or 8,466 above the level of the sea, Mount Pakhoo 4,210 feet above the city, or 8,994 above the level of the sea. At Catmandoo, in December and January, the barometer is 25° 28′, the thermometer being 52° Fahrenheit. The first seldom alters so much as one-tenth and a half in the course of the day, nor during the whole season so much as two-tenths for the same hour of the day. — (*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Cattywar or Kattywar (*Cattivad*).—This appellation is frequently applied by the natives to the whole Guzerat peninsula, although in fact it only occupies a portion of the interior, distinguished into four divisions: 1st. reckoning from the north is Punchal; 2d. Bansawar; 3d. Alug; 4th. Khooman. Cattywar proper is bounded on the north by Jhallawar; on the south by Babreeawar; on the east by Goelwara; and on the west by Soret. The northern tracts are of unequal surface; the southern in the neighbourhood of Babreeawar (which may be said also to belong to Cattywar), jungly and woody. Vad, a fence or division in the Gujerattee language, is a very common termination of the names of districts in this quarter, which syllable is frequently changed into var and war, as Cattywar for Cattyvad.

The soil and appearance of this district are variable, but generally the first is of a sandy nature, much mixed with a reddish coloured rock, of which last substance the hills are composed. These, although not lofty are numerous, and being deficient of trees, contribute to give the surface a barren and repulsive aspect. Its grain produce is confined to the coarser sorts, among which bajarry and joary are abundant and excellent, to which may be added a second or after crop of wheat, available in February, by the assistance of irrigation from wells. The horses reared in this territory are reckoned the best breeds of the peninsula, and the Catties themselves give a preference to that from the Choteela hill. In some parts of Cattywar wood and fuel are so scarce, that frequently the inhabitants of a village are expelled merely for the sake of the fire-wood procurable from their dwellings.

Like all other nations the Catties are desirous of asserting an ancient, heroic, and miraculous origin. Their traditions ascend to the conclusion of the Dwapar Yug, when the five Pandoos by bad luck or foul play at hazard, were compelled to quit their native country, and remain in secret exile for twelve years. After seven years' peregrination they arrived at Berat, or Dholka, where they were discovered by the spies of their enemy Durjhodun. To oblige them to

emerge from their concealment, and thereby to forfeit the pledge they had given to remain secret, Carna, the offspring of the sun, and prime minister to Durjhodun, suggested the stratagem of making a predatory attack on the cattle of Berat, which would compel every true Rajpoot warrior to quit the fortifications to recover them. But for so base a manœuvre Rajpoots could not be employed, which difficulty Carna removed by striking his rod on the ground, the rod opened and out issued a man, who being produced from wood was named Cat. On this newly created being devolved the task of stealing the cattle, and to reconcile him to the enterprize, Carna informed him that the gods would never reckon the commission of a robbery criminal in him or his descendants, more especially, when the property abstracted consisted of cattle. Of Carna the Catties always speak with great veneration, and continue to worship the sun his father, inscribing the image of that luminary on every written document they have occasion to execute.

The same traditions state that the aborigines of the country were Aheers and Babreeas before the arrival of the Catties, who wandered about with their flocks for many years on the great pastoral wastes, and lost no opportunity of robbing their neighbours About 260 years ago they became stationary at Sudamra, Guddra, and Budlee, within which limits they were long confined Most of their subsequent acquisitions have been made during the decline of the Mogul empire So late as 1807 they still followed their vocation of thieves and robbers, which designations they openly assumed. As a tribe the Catties are difficult to class. In 1812 the three principal families were the Tratchee, the Trowa, and the Walla, and they are much intermixed with the aboriginal Aheers or herdsmen. The Catties are not, and indeed never were, numerous, their habits and customs being unfavourable to an increase of numbers.

The Catties are distinguished by two general appellations: Shakarjut, the descendants of a Walla Rajpoot and Catty female; and the Oortes, or descendants of the genuine Catties. The Aheers and Babrecas may be classed with the latter, for in Cattywar the prejudices of caste have but little influence. The Catties may marry any number of wives, but usually restrict themselves to two. The male Catties are said to be athletic men, and the Cattriyanies, or female Catties, proverbially graceful and beautiful. They worship the sun, but have only one temple, situated near Thaun, their religious zeal being moderate and their superstition great All the higher classes practise female infanticide, which, although so repeatedly asserted to have been abolished in 1807, has never for a day been suspended. The treaty, in fact, turned out a mere dead letter, not one instance of punishment for the crime having occurred, and so far, from this being a proof of its diminution, it is quite the contrary, the British political agent with the petty states of Cattywar in 1820 having declared that not more than 100 females born since the treaty were then in existence At that date there were 137 chiefs tributary to the British government, besides others who were not.

Coerced by the strong arm of the British government, this turbulent district has, ever since Col. Walker's march in 1807, much against the inclination of its inhabitants, enjoyed a sort of compulsory peace. They have frequently evinced a strong desire to resume their old habits of robbery and depredation, for which purpose they believe they were born; but the pressure from above has always proved too ponderous to heave up. In 1820 a sort of partial insurrection, consisting of 900 Komaun Catties, joined by a number of roving Sindeans, captured the fort and village of Meeteealee, where they were attacked by a British detachment, and ultimately all their chiefs taken or destroyed.—(*Walker, Macmurdo, Ballantine, Drummond, &c.*)

CAUNPOOR *(Khanpura)*.—A district in the province of Allahabad, consisting of cessions to the British government from the Nabob of Oude, and mostly comprehended within the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, between the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the Etawah district; on the south by the river Jumna; to the east it has the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories; and on the west the river Ganges. The Caunpoor division is a segment of the vast plain extending from the Bay of Bengal to the northern mountains, and its soil is not only arable, but, when properly cultivated, highly productive. In the neighbourhood of the town and cantonments, agriculture has profited by the stimulus of a European market and high prices Indian corn, barley, and wheat, are there cultivated, and turnips, cabbages, and other European vegetables, during the season, are in great abundance, not only in the gardens of the officers, but in fields belonging to native farmers. Grapes, peaches, and a variety of fruits have long been supplied by the Europeans. Sugar-canes and other crops flourish in great luxuriance; but the cultivation is frequently separated by the intervention of extensive wastes, quite as capable of being rendered productive.

In 1814 the district of Cawnpoor was recorded as containing 3,439 villages, and 2,946,315 cutcha begas; of which 1,768,745 were cultivated, 134,189 fit for cultivation, and 1,043,381 begas wholly unproductive. The government demand in rupees was 27,36,297, which was realized, so that the assessment to the public revenue appeared to be nearly 1¼ rupees per bega. It was found, from experience, that on the first triennial settlement of 1808, Caunpoor was over-assessed, and suffered much in consequence.

No estimate approaching to accuracy has ever been made of the population of this district, but from the vast extent of land under tillage the number of inhabitants must be very great; and that they are not so prone to commit depredations as some of the more southern and eastern districts, is proved by a fact stated by the police superintendent, that within the first six months of 1812 not a single instance of gang robbery had occurred within the limits of the Caunpoor jurisdiction. This is the more surprising when it is considered that the town of Caunpoor is one of the greatest thoroughfares of inland commerce, as will appear from the following statement of the large sum paid into the Caunpoor treasury on account of duties received at the custom-house: in 1812 amounting to 4,58,000 rupees, and in 1813 to 4,85,000 rupees. Besides Caunpoor, the capital, the chief towns are Resoulabad, Jaujemow, and Acberpoor.—(*The Marquis of Hastings, Tennant, Guthrie, Rennell, &c*)

CAUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the west side of the Ganges, forty-five miles S.W. from Lucknow, lat. 26° 30′ N., lon. 80° 13′ E. The Ganges here is still a noble stream, being apparently above a mile broad, but in the dry season shallow, and divided by large sand-banks. A brigade of troops is usually cantoned here, it being considered the chief military station in the ceded provinces. The officers find their own quarters, which consist of commodious bungalows, built without any regularity for above six miles along the Ganges. Each bungalow has a space of ground attached, neatly laid out and planted, with generally the addition of a kitchen garden, the whole invariably surrounded by a high mud wall, as a defence against thieves, cattle, and other annoyances; and by this dusty mud protection the proprietor's view is frequently limited. Indeed the external aspect of this important station is most arid, dreary, and repulsive, more especially during the dry season, when the sun is obscured

by clouds of dust, and the atmosphere heated almost to suffocation. The history of the country affords many instances of battles lost and won according to the direction of the dust, the windward position giving such a decided advantage.

The public magazines stand at the north-west extremity, protected by a slight entrenchment; and on the banks of the Ganges, a little further in that direction, is the old town of Caunpoor, which probably never was a place of any note. A new town, however, has sprung round the cantonments, which, whether considered with reference to its size or commercial opulence, may justly claim the rank of a city. The chowk, or principal street, nearly parallel with the military lines, is composed of well-built brick houses, two or three stories high, with wooden balconies in front; but the rest of the town is straggling and mean. Caunpoor contains but few religious edifices, and these principally mosques, there being no Christian church here. The most imposing European structures are the gaol, assembly-room, and customhouse. The shops are large, and the articles they contain are sometimes as cheap as in Calcutta, while the mere necessaries of life are fifty per cent. cheaper Being quite a modern town, Caunpoor has no vestiges of antiquity to shew —(*Fullarton, Tennant, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

CAVAI.—A small Moplay town in the Malabar province, thirty miles N.N.W. from Tellicherry; lat. 30° 6′ N., lon. 75° 17′ E.

CAVERY RIVER *(Caveri)*.—This is the most useful river in the south of India, for above the ghauts it fertilizes the Mysore, while the Carnatic below owes its agricultural wealth to the water it distributes. It rises in the Coorg country, near the coast of Malabar, passes through Mysore, Coimbatoor, and the lower Carnatic, and after a winding course (enclosing a delta of great extent), falls into the sea through various mouths, in the province of Tanjore. For the first and principal supply of water in the month of May, it depends on the rain of the western ghaut mountains. Its tributary streams collect the waters of the Mysore in June and July, and during the latter months of the year it is again filled by the monsoon rains on the coast of Coromandel.

The falls of the Cavery are near the ancient city of Gunga Raya, on the island of Sivana Samudra, and opposite to Trichinopoly, it again separates into two branches, forming the island of Seringham. About thirteen miles to the eastward of this last point of separation, the branches again approach; but the northern branch is here twenty feet lower than the southern, and is permitted to run waste to the sea under the name of the Coleroon. The southern branch, retaining the name of Cavery, has been led through a variety of channels by the skill and industry of the Hindoos, to irrigate the Tanjore province, and is the cause of its extraordinary fertility. Near the east end of Seringham, an immense mound is formed, to prevent the waters of the Cavery descending into the Coleroon. The coming of the floods from the interior is every where celebrated with festivities by the natives of the Carnatic, who consider the river as one of their most beneficent deities.

This valuable river is no where navigable for large vessels. Even so low down as Trichinopoly, the only boats, or rather coracles, in use, are circular wicker baskets covered with hides, similar to those employed on the Krishna and Toombudra. On some of its northern branches, near their junction with the sea, still ruder contrivances are resorted to, such as a raft of twigs floating on inverted earthern pots; but throughout the southern portion of the Tanjore district the rivers are provided with flat-bottomed boats.—(*Wilks, Fullarton, Heyne, &c.*)

CAVERYPAUK.—A town in the Carnatic, enclosed with an old mud wall, fifty-seven miles W.S.W. from Ma-

dras; lat. 12° 53′ N., lon. 79° 31′ E. Here is a great eray or tank, about eight miles long by three broad, which fertilizes a considerable tract of country. This is perhaps the most magnificent of all the great works constructed in the south of India for the purposes of irrigation. The embankment by which it is supported is a mound of earth thirty feet high, faced on the side next the tank with large stones, and thickly planted on the outside with palmira trees. The town of Caverypauk is but a meanly built place, and the adjoining fort, which appears at one time to have been a place of some strength, is now a ruin choked up with trees. The Panaur, opposite to Caverypatam, is generally fordable; but after heavy rains becomes a furious and impassable torrent.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Caveryporum (*Caveripura*).—A small town in the Coimbatoor province, eighty-two miles S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 50′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E. This place stands on the banks of the Cavay, which during the rainy season is here a wide, strong, smooth stream, no where fordable, but in the dry months there are many fords.

Cavite.—A town in the Philippines, in the bay of Manilla, and three leagues S.W. of the town of which it is the proper harbour; lat. 14° 34′ N., lon. 120° 48′ E. The depth of water here is excellent, and ships may lie within musket-shot of the arsenal, but Cavité Bay is infested by a species of worm which destroys ships' planks and timbers. It was formerly a place of much greater size and consequence; but latterly had so much declined, that in 1819 the whole population, consisting of Mulattoes, Indians, and a few Europeans, was estimated at only 4,000 persons. Although so near to Manilla, being actually within the bay, boats going from the one to the other, are often taken by piratical prows and the people sold for slaves.—(*La Peyrouse, Sonnerat, &c.*)

Cayagan Sooloo Isles.—A cluster of islands in the Eastern seas, lying off the north-eastern coast of Borneo; lat. 7° N., lon. 118° 50′ E. The largest, about twenty miles in circumference, is of a middling height, covered with trees, and the soil rich and luxuriant. In 1774 this island was dependent on Sooloo, and much frequented by the Mangaio, or piratical prows. The tide here rises six feet in the springs.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Ceded Districts.—See Balaghaut.

CELEBES.

A large island in the Eastern seas of a most extraordinary shape, separated from Borneo by the straits of Macassar. It extends from lat. 2° N. to nearly 6° S., and from 119° to 125° E. lon.; but the coast is so deeply indented by three bays, that it is difficult to form an estimate of its actual surface; making allowance, however, for the irregularity of its figure, Celebes may be estimated at 500 miles in length, by 150 miles the average breadth, giving an area of about 75,000 square miles.

This island by the natives and Malays is called Negree Oran Buggess, or Buggessman's country, and sometimes Tanna Macassar. It is situated between the great island of Borneo on the west; the islands of Gilolo, Poby, Ceram, and Amboyna, to the east; to the south lies Salayer, separated by a narrow strait, named by the Dutch the Budgeroons. Further to the south lies Floris, Timor, and Sumbhawa; to the north there is a broad sea, and the island of Sangir to the north-east.

A deep gulf runs into the island from the south, called Sewa by the natives, and Buggess Bay by the English. There is also a deep indenture in the north-east, called Tominie Bay, which penetrates so far that it forms an isthmus, and, with Tolo Bay on the east, divides the island into four peninsulas. Celebes has three rivers, of which the Chinrana is the most

considerable. It rises in the Wadjo country, runs through Boni, and disembogues by several mouths in the gulf of Sewa. European ships can ascend this river a considerable way over a muddy bottom, and it is navigable for prows inland to a fresh water lake. The second is the river Boli, with three fathoms water over its bar, which discharges itself after a winding course at Boli, on the north-coast. The third falls into the sea on the west-coast, a considerable distance south of Macassar. Along the whole of the south coast small rivers navigable for five or six miles inland are very frequent. There are not any ascertained volcanoes in the southern divisions of Celebes, but some are said to exist in the northern.

In 1820 the civilized inhabitants of Celebes consisted of four or five distinct nations, speaking different languages; *viz.* the Buggesses, the Macassars, the Mandars, the Kaili, and the Manado. The Buggess race are by far the most considerable, being subdivided into various tribes united by a common dialect and similar institutions, and of these tribes, the Wadjo, or Tuwadjo is by far the most distinguished for commerce and maritime enterprize. The centre of the island to the northward is said to be inhabited by the Turajas or Horaforas, who are considered the aborigines.

In the south-western limb the principal languages are the Macassar and Buggess. The first comprehends the petty states of Booncoomba, Bontain, Tarabaya, Goak, Manos, and Ligere; the second is much more general, and extends from Boni to Luwu, including the four great principalities of Luwu, (Looboe of the Dutch), Boni, Wadjo, and Soping. In Mandhar and its vicinity the Mandharese language is spoken. The appearance of the southern limb indicates a former state of superior cultivation and prosperity, and it is still the most populous portion of the island, the climate being comparatively salubrious. The Dutch have long possessed several small forts on the bays of Tolo and Tominie, but do not appear ever to have explored the country in their vicinity. The two states of Boni and Macassar have at different periods exercised paramount authority over the smaller communities, and their history comprehends all that is interesting in that of Celebes.

The tribes of Celebes are now the most considerable and enterprizing navigators of the Eastern islands, and among these the most distinguished are the Buggesses of Wadjo. The principal import is cotton from the adjacent islands, which is re-exported after being manufactured into Buggess cloth, which is in constant demand throughout the Eastern archipelago; the other articles are bird's-nests, sea slugs, shark fins, tortoise-shell, agar-wood, hides, &c. for the Chinese market, to which they are transported by the junks that visit Celebes annually, gold is also found, but in smaller quantities than at Borneo. The principal traffickers are the Wadjoos, parties of whom are settled in every seaport of consequence from Acheen to Manilla, and who also usually compose the crews of the Buggess prows. Some of these Wadjoo cargoes, consisting of opium, gold, and cloths, have been valued at 50,000 Spanish dollars. The gold of Celebes is generally procured, as in Sumatra, from the beds of rivers and torrents. There are many springs issuing from the crevices of rocks, that bring some little gold along with the water, which filtering through a vessel bottomed with sand, leaves the metal behind; these might be worth exploring. Monopolies here are among the legitimate fiscal resources; the chief of Luwu monopolizes brass; the raja of Soping, betel-leaf; the raja of Sedendring, salt and opium. The teak tree is only found in a few spots of Celebes; the largest forest is in the district of Mario, where the natives assert it was originally planted from imported seed. The tiger and leopard, which abound in the more western islands, are not to be found in Celebes.

The states of this island exhibit the

singular anomaly in politics of elective monarchies limited by aristocracies, which are themselves limited by subordinate ones; indeed, they seem to be a sort of aristocratical federations of the petty lords or tyrants of villages, the chiefship of which is sometimes elective from the whole body, but more generally from a particular family. The prince is chosen from the royal stock by a certain number of counsellors, who also possess the prerogative of subsequently removing him. These counsellors are themselves selected from particular families, and without their concurrence the prince can execute no public measure; they have also charge of the public treasure, and also nominate the prince, and in fact appear to have practically tried the experiment with how little power a sovereign can conduct the affairs of government.

When war occurs the prince cannot in person command the armies, but the usages of the country permit, on such an event, his temporary resignation, when a regent succeeds provisionally to the highest rank, to be laid down when the exigence has passed away. Women and minors are eligible in every department; but some variation is observable in different realms. In Boni the prince is elected by seven hereditary counsellors; in Goak, by ten, of whom the prime minister is one, being himself appointed by the other nine. In the exercise of his functions, however, he possesses very extraordinary powers, for he can remove the prince himself, and call on the counsellors to elect another. The inferior provincial chiefs, named crains, are established by the government.

Among the warlike nations of Celebes the women take an active part in all the concerns of life, and are very frequently raised to the throne in the elective monarchies: in fact, there is hardly a state in which women at one period or another have not sat on the throne, and it may be remarked, that the practice is most frequent where the society is the most turbulent. In A.D 1714 Batara Toja was elected queen of Boni, and from affection yielded the crown to her brother, who being deposed for incapacity, she was re-chosen, and a second time resigned the crown to her brother. In 1814 the sovereign of the Buggess state of Luwu was the wife of the king of Soping, another petty Buggess prince; but the latter never presumed to interfere in the affairs of Luwu, which were entirely managed by his wife. At the same date, the wife of a Macassar chief was independent sovereign of the little state of Lipukasi. The arrangement of the provinces under European authority is purely feudal, the Dutch considering themselves sole proprietors of the soil, which they distribute at pleasure.

This great island is the centre from whence that peculiar description of civilization which characterizes the creese-wearing nations of the Eastern archipelago appears to have emanated. The alphabet of Celebes consists of eighteen consonants and five vowels, regulated by the peculiar classification of the Sanscrit alphabet, which is rejected in that of Java. The two prevailing languages are the Buggess and Macassar, both simple in their structure, and of a soft vocalic articulation, even beyond the Malay. Like the Kawi of the Javanese, the Buggesses are said to have an ancient and recondite language, but this does not appear to be as yet fully ascertained, they also possess tales and romances founded on national traditions, translations from the Malayan and Javanese romances, historical legends, and Arabic works on law and religion, all feeble, childish, and contemptible. The Buggess language has, nevertheless, much influenced the neighbouring tongues and dialects, such as the Sumbhawa, Floris, Timore, Booton, and Salayer.

The natives of Celebes do not appear to have any treatise on science, philosophy, or astronomy; but they are acquainted with Jupiter, the Pleiades, Sirius, Orion, Antares, and the Great Bear, by which luminaries they navigate their prows. The Macas-

sars use Mahomedan names for their months; the Buggesses divide their year of 365 days into twelve months, beginning on the 16th May, an arrangement which has probably been introduced since the arrival of Mahomedans, for they do not appear to have had any era prior to the propagation of the Arabian faith, since which they employ the Hejira

The most ancient state of which tradition makes mention in Celebes is that of Luwu or Luhu (probably the Looboe of the Dutch), situated near the bottom of the bay of Boni. The Galigas, or historical romances, are filled with the exploits of Sawira Gading, the first chief of the Luwu country, who is said to have extended his dominions to the Straits of Malacca. Next to Luwu, the empire of Goak has the greatest claim to antiquity, and a period is mentioned when its influence extended to Acheen, Manilla, Sooloo, Ternate, and the Moluccas

No information has as yet been procured of any intercourse between this island and Hindostan and China, prior to the introduction of the Mahomedan religion, neither are any monuments or inscriptions found tending to establish the former prevalence of the Brahminical mythology. The best informed natives, however, assert their descent from Hindoos, and the names of their ancient divinities (Batara, or Avatara, Gooroo, Varuna, &c) indicate an intimate relation at some period, and it is still probable that Hindoo vestiges will be discovered after the island has been more completely explored Batara Gooroo, a Javanese local name of Siva, is described as the first of their kings

In A.D. 1512, when the Portuguese first visited Celebes, they found but few Mahomedans, and it was not until the expiration of a century that the faith of Mahomed was generally established. The principal agents in the conversion were natives of various Malay states in Sumatra and the peninsula, and the most renowned was Khatib Tungal, a native of Menancabow. At present the Mahomedan tenets are professed in all the civilized tracts of Celebes, where the Koran is of course the standard, both of law and religion. According to the records of Macassar, it was introduced there by Khatib Tungal, about A D. 1603. Nearly all the inhabitants of the southern limb are now Mahomedans, but of the others only a small proportion are said to be yet converted

This island appears to have been known to Magellan and Pigafetta under the name of Celebi; and the Portuguese early obtained a settlement near Macassar, from whence they were expelled by the Dutch, in A D. 1660 In consequence of the increasing strength and civilization of the state of Boni and the Buggesses during the last half of the eighteenth century, the power of the Dutch had been much on the decline, and in 1811 the Dutch authority in Celebes was transferred to the British by a conquest and capitulation with the French governor-general of the Dutch colonies in India, but on the return of tranquillity the British authorities quitted Celebes, and in 1816 it was once more restored to the Dutch — (*Forrest, Stavorinus and Notes, Raffles, Crawfurd, Leyden, Marsden, &c*)

CERA ISLE —A small island about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the west side of Timorlaut Isle, lon 131° 50′ E

CERAM ISLE —A large island in the Eastern seas, extending from the 128th to the 130th degrees of east longitude, and situated principally between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at 185 miles, by thirty miles the average breadth; giving an area of 5,550 square miles.

A chain of very high mountains parallel in their direction runs from east to west, the valleys between which present every sign of a vigorous vegetation. The highest peak of these mountains appears to be 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. The peninsula of Hoewamoehil, or

Little Ceram, is joined to the main land by a narrow isthmus, and in ancient times produced great quantities of cloves and nutmegs; but the trees were extirpated by the Dutch about A.D. 1657. The wood usually called Amboyna, and the Salmoni, both of which are exported from Amboyna, for cabinet-work, are mostly the production of Ceram. This island is particularly distinguished for the immense natural forests of the sago palm which it contains, and its shores for the abundance of rare and beautiful shells.

Rumphius describes the wild mountains and interior of Ceram as inhabited by the Horaforas or Aforeze, apparently the aborigines of all the islands west of the Papuan or eastern negro isles. He says they are a tall, strong, and savage people, generally of a higher stature than the maritime inhabitants. Both sexes go almost naked, wearing only a bandage round their waist, made from the bark of a tree, their weapons a bamboo spear, bows, and poisoned arrows. Like the Dayacs of Borneo, and Garrows on the borders of Bengal, and apparently all aboriginal eastern tribes, they have barbarous and superstitious rites, all connected with the shedding of human blood.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Labillardière, Bougainville, &c.*)

Ceram Laut Isles.—A cluster of small islands lying off the east end of the large island of Ceram, about the 130th degree of east longitude, and latitude 3° 55′ S.

CEYLON.

(Singhala.)

This island is situated at the western entrance of the bay of Bengal, within the latitudes of 5° 56′ and 9° 46′ N., and the longitudes of 79° 36′ and 81° 58′ E. On the north-west it is separated from the Coromandel coast by the gulf of Manaar, and is about 150 miles distant from Cape Comorin. On the south and east it is washed by the great Indian ocean. From Point Pedro at the northern extremity to Dondra head at the southern, the extreme length is about 270 miles, and the extreme breadth about 145; but the average breadth does not exceed 100 miles, giving a superficial area of about 27,000 square miles. Towards the south the island is much broader than at the north, and in shape it nearly resembles a ham.

The mountainous and central division in perpendicular elevation above the sea varies from 800 to 3,000, and even to 4,000 and 5,000 feet, but in general it does not exceed 2,000 feet, the tracts of greater elevation being generally of very limited extent. The largest is the space lying between Fort Macdonald and Maturata, which reaches to 4,000 feet in height, but does not exceed twelve miles in length, by two or three in breadth The wild country called Neura Ellya probably attains the elevation of 5,000 feet, but does not comprehend more than fifteen or twenty miles. Many mountain peaks surpass these in altitude. Adam's Peak (the Samanella of the natives) is about 6,152; and Namana Cooli Candy about 5,548 feet. The mountains occur in continued chains, there scarcely being an instance of a solitary insulated mountain. There are no lakes nor even stagnant pools among the mountains, of course every valley must have an outlet with a gradual descent to the maritime belt of low land.

Dr Davy is of opinion that the whole of Ceylon, with a very few exceptions, consists of primitive rock, of many varieties, yet the species are very few and not well defined. The most prevailing species is granite or gneis; the more limited quartz rock, horn-blende rock, and dolomite rock. The varieties of granite and gneis are innumerable, the limestone is mostly confined to Jaffnapatam; and the whole island is surrounded by an uninterrupted chain of sandstone rock. There are no volcanoes in Ceylon, nor any vestiges that suggest the idea of their prior existence.

Owing to its climate, Ceylon abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, but the latter are much more numerous on the western than the eastern side. The principal are the Mahavilly Gunga, the Calany Gunga, the Caloo Gunga, and the Welleway Gunga, by which the whole mountainous district is drained; but except the first none of them are navigable, even for small barges, more than fifteen miles from the shore. The Mahavilly (Mahavali) is by far the largest, and is navigable inland nearly as far as Candy, where it is interrupted by a ridge of rocks. The Calany Gunga is next in magnitude to the Mahavilly, and probably in importance surpasses it

The north and west coast from Point Pedro to Columbo is flat, and much indented with inlets from the sea; the largest extends almost quite across the island, forming the peninsula of Jaffnapatam The sea by which Ceylon is surrounded is practicable for large ships from Point Pedro north to Trincomalee, Batticalo, Point de Galle and Columbo, but from these to Manaar and Jaffnapaam, commerce must be carried on in vessels not exceeding 100 tons, and even the greater part of their cargoes must be unshipped while passing the Manaar channels. The principal harbours for large ships are Trincomalee and Point de Galle; the inferior ones are Batticalo, Barbareen, Matura and Caltura, on the south and east; and on the west, Negumbo, Chilaw, Calpenteen, Manaar, and Point Pedro. The tides about Ceylon rise only three feet in perpendicular height

Over most of the island, and more especially the maritime provinces, the S.W. and N.E. monsoons prevail with some variations, the first usually from the end of April to the beginning of November; the second is of shorter duration, being comprised between November and March. The S.W. wind is more general all over the island, as both at Columbo and Trincomalee it blows for five months in succession; whereas at Columbo the N.E is chiefly confined to December and January; the consequence is, that at Columbo the period of variable winds is longer than at Trincomalee. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are greatly modified by local circumstances, and according to their proximity to the east or west coast. The highest and most central have peculiarities of their own, thus at Badulla, in Upper Ouva, the wind for three-fourths of the year is from the N E., and in the months of June, July, and August, is variable.

Owing to its intertropical position the quantity of rain that falls in Ceylon is very great, probably about three times that of England Being less frequent, the showers are much heavier while they last, a fall of two and three inches being not uncommon in twenty-four hours, and in one instance three and one-fifth inches of rain fell at Columbo in twelve hours. In consequence of this redundant moisture, the western coast of Ceylon looks constantly fresh and green, exciting the admiration of strangers from the parched plains of the Carnatic Among the mountains the variety is greater, but on an average less falls on the eastern than the western side. A lofty mountainous ridge often acts as a line of demarkation, one side of which is drenched with rain, while the other is broiling under an unclouded sun. At Candy eighty-four inches of rain fell in 1819, which is probably about the average of the alpine region.

With respect to heat no tropical country is more favoured than Ceylon, its warmest weather, owing to its insular position, being quite temperate when compared to the scorching heats of India Along the sea-coast the mean annual temperature may be stated at 80°, and the extreme range of the thermometer from 68° to 90°; the medium range between 75° and 85°. The climate of the mountains is usually cooler than might be expected; but its vicissitudes greater. At Candy, which is 1,467 feet above the level of the sea, the mean annual temperature is about 73°. In March

1819, on the top of Namina Cooli Candy, 5,548 feet high, at eight o'clock A.M. Dr. Davy found the temperature of a pot of water to be 53°, that of the air being 57°. Dew is not common except in the low plains and vallies of the interior, where mists also form of so extraordinary a density, that when viewed from the summit of a mountain, they resemble lakes of vast extent and great depth. The lofty apices, as may be supposed, enter the region of the clouds; which, during the whole of the south-west monsoon, conceal Adam's Peak. Thunder storms are very frequent, but as they cool the air and seldom do any mischief, they are highly acceptable, both to man and beast. Indeed, the birds never sing so sweetly, nor are their notes heard to such advantage; as between the loudest peals of thunder.

Within the limits of Ceylon all degrees of salubrity are experienced; the best on the south-west coast, and on the high central mountains; the worst in the low wooded country between the mountains and the sea, in all directions, except towards the south-west coast; the middle degrees on the lower hills, and on the north-eastern shores of the island. But instances of occasional insalubrity occur, especially in the Candian country, that do not admit of any explication. Particular spots and districts, that have been remarkably healthy for many years, suddenly change their character, and without any apparent cause become extremely pestilential, after which they gradually assume their former salubrity.

The soils of Ceylon appear to be derived from the decomposition of gneiss, granite, or clay, iron-stone, the principal ingredient of the three being quartz, in the form of sand or gravel, and decomposed felspar in the state of clay, combined with different proportions of oxide of iron. Quartz in most instances is the predominating substance, and in many constitutes nine-tenths of the whole. It is usually supposed that in tropical climates, where vegetation is luxuriant and wood abundant, the soil must consist of much vegetable matter: such, however, is not the fact in Ceylon, where the natural soils seldom contain more than three per cent. of vegetable matter. The best and most productive earths of Ceylon are, a brown loam resulting from the decomposition of gneiss, or granite exceeding in felspar; or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clay iron-stone. The worst soils are those where quartz predominates, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz-rock; or of granite and gneiss containing a very large proportion of quartz. It seems extraordinary that in an island, the foundations of which are calcareous, there should be so little calcareous matter, and so large a proportion of siliceous matter in the soil.

The soil of the cinnamon gardens in the neighbourhood of Columbo is a remarkable instance of the siliceous kind. In many parts the surface of the ground where the cinnamon plant flourishes is as white as snow: this is pure quartz sand. A few inches below the surface, where the roots penetrate the sand, is of a grey colour, a specimen of which, thoroughly dried, was found by Dr Davy to consist of,

Siliceous sand.........	98 5
Vegetable matter......	1 0
Water	0 5
	100 0

It may appear surprising that the cinnamon plant should succeed best in so poor a soil; but, other circumstances considered, it admits of explanation. The garden is nearly on a level with the lake of Columbo, and well sheltered, the climate is damp; showers are frequent, and the temperature high, and remarkably equable. Indeed, in Ceylon the succession of seasons that varies the year of the temperate zone is unknown: for excepting by a change of wind, and the trasitions from wet to dry weather, the perpetual summer it experiences can scarcely be said to be even diversified.

The seeds of all European plants

degenerate so rapidly, that a fresh importation is necessary almost every year; but some of the indigenous plants, such as the cocoa-nut, flourish with singular vigour. The best trees, producing about fifty nuts per annum, are found i a sandy soil, so close to the sea that their roots are actually washed by the surge of the ocean, towards which they bend their heads. Cocoa-nut oil obtained by pressure, copras (the kernel sliced and dried), and coir (the fibres of the husk), are articles of exportation, as are also betel-nut and tobacco. Besides these staples, Ceylon produces a great variety of the finest sorts of wood used for cabinet work, and tropical fruits in the most profuse abundance.

The principal cinnamon gardens are in the vicinity of Columbo, and occupy a tract of country about twelve miles in circumference. Others of a smaller size are situated at Negumbo, Caltura, Point de Galle, and Matura, extending along the south-west coast. No cinnamon trees are found west of Chilaw, or east of Tengalle, and are equally unknown about Trincomalee and Jaffnapatam, where the climate is dry and sultry. Within the confined space where it flourishes the climate is moist, and rain falls almost every day. In a wild state the tree, (which is the *laurus cinnamomum* or *coorundoo* of the Cingalese) grows to the height of above twenty feet, but in the gardens they are not permitted to rise above ten, and present the appearance of numerous shoots from the same root. They look beautiful, but the fragrance of the cinnamon forests is not near so great a strangers have been led to imagine, the blossoms having very little smell, and the wood, when deprived of the bark, none at all.

Ceylon possesses a great variety of animals, at the head of which the elephant may be placed; but the royal tiger, wolf, and antelope, all common on the continent, are unknown here Of twenty different kinds of snakes examined by Dr Davy, sixteen were found to be harmless, although a great majority had the character of being venomous. The carawalla, tic polonga, the cobra de capello, and another, are the four poisonous snakes, and all of the *coluber* genus; but it is the bite of the two last only that is most dangerous. Indeed, the leeches of Ceylon, though less dreaded, are much more troublesome than the whole snake tribe. It is not certain that any medicine has yet been discovered that in the slightest degree promotes the recovery of a person bitten by snakes.

This island has long been remarkable for its richness in gems, and poverty with respect to the useful metals. It is equally so for the number of rare animals it affords, and for the small number of the ordinary species. The only metallic ores hitherto found in Ceylon are those of iron and manganese, the first being generally diffused and tolerably abundant It has also been asserted that gold and mercury occur somewhere in Ceylon, but there is every reason to believe the statement unfounded. The precious metals are rarely discovered in their native rock, but only in alluvial grounds and the beds of rivers. The island contains every variety of quartz, such as rock crystal, amethyst, rose-quartz, and cat's-eye. The first is abundant, of various colours, both massive and crystallized, of good quality, and in large masses The natives use it instead of glass for the lenses of spectacles, and also for ornamental purposes and statuary. Beautiful specimens of amethyst are found in the alluvial ground of Suffragam and the Seven Corles, and the finest cat's-eyes in the granitic alluvion of Suffragam and Matura. Prase (a variety of quartz) is of rare occurrence, and chiefly among the shore pebbles of Trincomalee.

There is reason to believe that chalcedony exists in the interior, fragments having been found and used as gun-flints. The topaz is commonly white, blue, or yellowish white, and usually passes under the name of the

white or water sapphire Tourmaline is rare; the emerald is not found, nor probably the beryl The common garnet is very plentifully disseminated through the gneiss in every part of the country, but the precious garnet occurs in few spots. The cinnamon-stone is found in few places, chiefly in the Matura district. The zircon family is abundant, and sold under various denominations, such as topazes, tourmalines, hyacinths, interior rubies, and imperfect diamonds For the ruby family Ceylon has long been celebrated. Four species of it, the spinel, sapphire, corundum, and chryso-beryl, occur mostly in the alluvial of gneiss or granitic rock, in the substance of which they appear to have originally crystallized.

Ceylon abounds in rivers and springs, remarkable for their purity, but not in mineral or medicinal waters. The first circumstance may be attributed to the mountainous nature of the island, the second to its geological structure. Neither are the saline productions numerous. In certain caves of the interior, nitre, nitrate of lime, sulphate of magnesia, and alum are found. Twenty-two of these caves have been recorded, but the manufacture of gunpowder being prohibited by the British government, they are now much neglected. Were the salt lakes of Mahagam Pattoo scientifically managed, they might be made to yield salt sufficient for the supply of all India, and large quantities of magnesia might be extracted from the residual brines, while the preparation of the wood-ash necessarily would tend to destroy the jungle with which the district is overspread, diminish the insalubrity of the air, and check the increase of wild animals hostile to agriculture.

The grand article of importation to Ceylon is rice, the value of which frequently exceeds half the amount of the whole goods exported; and the next in consequence is cotton cloth: yet the soil of the island is capable of producing a redundant quantity of the finest cotton. Hemp is raised abundantly, the sandy soil of the maritime provinces being well adapted for its cultivation The cultivation of the sugar-cane on a large scale has been twice attempted, and each time failed. From the toddy of the cocoa-nut tree arrack is distilled by the common still, in the same manner as brandy from wine From 400 gallons of toddy, fifty gallons of arrack are drawn, equal in strength to brandy twenty-five London under-proof, which when rectified produces half the quantity of strong spirit. Compared with Bengal rum, Ceylon arrack is admitted to be the most wholesome liquor, and it is thirty per cent. cheaper In 1813 the total value of exports from Ceylon was 2,443,940 rix-dollars (eleven and a half to the pound sterling), of imports 6,478,739 rix-dollars, but of this last two-thirds was rice, it having been a year of scarcity The total tonnage of all descriptions belonging to the island was estimated at 8,000 tons.

The public revenue of Ceylon may be divided into two branches, *viz.* one derived from certain productions of the island reserved by government to the fiscal resources, the other, such imposts as the land-tax, taxes on property, taxes on consumption, and capitation taxes. Of the reserved productions cinnamon is the most important, but of the net profits no official document has recently been published; the pearl fishery, which in 1814 yielded £64,000, the fishery of chank shells (a species of large buccinum sawed into female ornaments for the wrists, &c), and madder root. The taking of elephants, formerly so lucrative to the Dutch, is no longer considered of any importance, the value of the animal having fallen so much in price. The government share of the crop differs so greatly as from one-tenth to one-half, and is received in kind. In 1812 it amounted to 513,174 rix-dollars. No grants of land are permitted to be made by government to British subjects, or to European settlers on the island Salt is one of the most productive sources of re-

venue, and promises to yield a considerable augmentation. In 1812 the total amount of the public annual revenue of every description was 3,028,446 rix dollars (£263,343); the total expenses to 3,339,726 rix dollars: deficit 371,280 rix dollars. The establishment of civil servants, forty in number, fill a gradation of offices to which salaries are attached of from £500 to £3,000 per annum, and after a residence of twelve years are entitled to retire on pensions of from £400 to £700 per annum.

The ancient population of Ceylon cannot now be satisfactorily ascertained, but there is no reason to suppose it ever was so great as at present, although some large ruins indicate that particular tracts were formerly more thickly inhabited. According to a census made by the collectors of districts in 1814 the whole population of the British possessions amounted to about 475,883 persons. Dr Davy, in 1819, estimated the inhabitants of the Candian provinces at 300,000 persons, but when the total desolation of many of the districts through which he travelled is considered, that number probably exceeds the reality. On the other hand, it may be admitted that the population of the maritime provinces have increased, so that if we compute the total population of the island at 700,000 persons, it will be as near an approximation as can at present be attained.

The great body of the natives may be divided into three classes, each nearly equal in number; the Cingalese (or Ceylonese), the Candians, and the Malabars. The first occupy the southern half of the island, from Dondra head to the confines of Baticalo on the east, and to the river Chilaw on the west. The coasts further north are occupied by the Malabars, while the Candians are enclosed in the central regions. The Moodelliars and higher orders of Ceylonese profess Christianity, and have adopted many European customs, restricting themselves to one wife, and marrying according to the forms of the Dutch church. A considerable number of the lower orders continue votaries of Buddha, and many have been converted to the faith of Mahomed; but it may be safely asserted that half of the whole Ceylonese (not including the Candians) openly profess Christianity, one portion according to the doctrines of the reformed church of Holland, the other following those of Rome; both equally ill-instructed and ignorant. The Cingalese have a language and written character of their own, but, owing to the mixed composition of the society, it is necessary that all public proclamations be issued in the Ceylonese, Malabar, Dutch, and English languages.

Caste prevails among the unconverted Cingalese as among the Brahminical Hindoos, both acknowledging four principal ones similar in name and functions; but the distinctions among the first are very loosely adhered to. The Gattaroo tribe of outcasts are the descendants of certain individuals whose ancestors were expelled society by the king for the infamy of their conduct. The sentence pronounced against them by his majesty, however terrific in Ceylon, would not be considered any great hardship in England: "Let the criminal be exempted from paying taxes and performing services, and be henceforward considered a Gattaroo." The Rhodees were made outcasts for continuing to eat beef after it was prohibited.

The proper name of this island is Singhala, from which the term Ceylon is probably derived: by the Hindoos on the continent it is named Lanca, and by the Arabians Serindib. It is also named Taprobane, which possibly originates from Tapoo Ravana, the island of Ravan, a demon sovereign in the remote times of Hindoo antiquity. The strange mythological poem named the Ramayuna, narrates the conquest of Ceylon and destruction of Ravan, by Rama king of Oude, assisted by an army of gigantic monkies, which appears to indicate an intercourse between this island and

Upper Hindostan. The first meridian of the Hindoos passes through Oojein in Malwa, of which we know the position: but as, according to that position, Lanca falls to the west of the present island, the Brahmins are of opinion that Ceylon had once a much greater extent, and appearances between it and the Maldives tend to justify the belief. The name of the river Mahavilly Gunga probably originated from Bali, another famous hero of Hindoo romance, from whom the celebrated ruins at Mahavalipuram, on the Coromandel coast, are designated.

The historical records of Ceylon (if they deserve the name) are merely traditionary tales or mythological romances, very minute as to the early and fabulous ages, but scanty in proportion as the verge of authentic history is approached. Prior to the arrival of the Portuguese in A.D. 1505, little is known of the history of Ceylon, and that little apocryphal. At that early date the Portuguese commander Almeida found the island already harassed by foreigners from Arabia, and he persuaded the Cingalese king residing at Columbo to pay him a tribute of cinnamon, on condition of assisting against these intruders. In 1603 the Dutch first arrived, and in 1632 they sent a strong armament to act in concert with the King of Candy against the Portuguese, whom after a long and sanguinary struggle, in 1656, they completely subdued and expelled. Then began a new series of wars between the Dutch and the Candian monarchs, who were frequently reduced to the last extremity, but protected by their mountains, jungles, and climate, they always escaped subjugation, while the Dutch retained possession of the maritime provinces. In consequence of the revolutionary war, a British fleet and army were despatched against the latter in 1796, and their conquest effected, with the entire acquiescence of his Candian majesty, who expected great advantages, but only exchanged a weak neighbour for a powerful one.

The subsequent historical details belong to the kingdom of Candy, where the wars of 1803 and 1815 are alluded to, in which last year, with the entire consent of the natives, the conquest of that state was finally effected. In 1817 a most expensive and harassing rebellion broke out in the central provinces, which lasted until the end of 1819, since which uninterrupted peace has prevailed, and various improvements, fiscal, judicial, and commercial, have been executed. In 1821 the export of cinnamon was opened to all purchasers (having previously been restricted to the East-India Company) from the government stores, where public auctions were ordered to be held every month. Ceylon has been fortunate in having been ruled ever since its conquest by a succession of able and zealous governors: the Earl of Guildford, Sir Thomas Maitland, and General Brownrigg, who in 1819 was succeeded by General Barnes.—(*Dr. Davy, Bertolacci, Cordiner, Knox, Buchanan, Percival, Sir Wm Jones, &c.*)

Chacky (*Chaki*).—A town, or rather a cluster of small hamlets, in the province of Bahar, 102 miles S.E. from Patna, lat. 24° 33′ N., lon. 86° 25′ E. It stands in an elevated undulating tract of country near the top of the Bettiah ghaut. A steep and stony pass seven miles long, and the usual thoroughfare between this high region and the north-eastern plains. For some time after the reduction of the jungleterry of Boglipoor, Chacky was the head-quarters of a British force: a small square redoubt still remains, dignified with the name of Fort Hastings.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Chachoura.—A fortified village in the province of Malwa, district of Keechewara, which appears at some former period to have been a large and flourishing place.

Chagaing (*or Sakaing*).—A town in the kingdom of Ava, once its capital, situated on the west bank of the Irawady, opposite to the capital; lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 95° 58′ E. This was formerly the grand emporium to which

cotton was brought, and being cleaned, embarked for the China market. It was sent up the Irawady in boats carrying about 36,000 pounds, and reached the frontiers of Yunan in from thirty to forty days. The latter part of the passage is described as difficult and dangerous, owing to the increased rapidity of the stream over a rocky channel. Namdojee Praw, the second monarch of the reigning family, removed the seat of government from Monchaboo to Chagaing, on account of the purity of the air and beauty of the scenery. In 1826 it was found surrounded by a brick wall, and very populous. It still continues a place of great religious resort, on account of its numerous pagodas. It is also the principal manufactory of idols, which being hewn out of an adjacent quarry of fine alabaster, are sculptured here and afterwards transported to the remotest corner of the Burmese empire. The largest exceed the human size, and cost from £12 to £13 sterling, but some diminutive Gaudinas may be had for six or seven shillings. In the neighbourhood also there was formerly a manufactory of enormous rockets, in which branch of pyrotechny the Birmans take great delight, and are particularly skilful.—(*Symes, Cox, Trant, Snodgrass, &c.*)

CHAGEE.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, twenty-one miles north-west from Adoni; lat. 15° 49′ N., lon. 77° 4′ E.

CHALAIN MEW.—A town in the kingdom of Ava situated on the Aeng road, from Shembegewn on the Irawady to Amherst Island in Arracan. It is the capital of a Birman district, and before the British invasion contained 10,000 inhabitants, but during the confusion of that period was destroyed by marauding parties from the Burmese armies. Round it (in 1826) were the remains of a lofty brick wall (a rare sight in Ava), fifty feet high without and thirty within, supported by slight abutments, and only three and a half feet thick. To these walls the natives assign an antiquity of 1,500 years.—(*Trant, &c.*)

CHAIOO.—A village in Tibet, situated midway between two lakes; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon 89° 25′ E., sixty miles S.S.E. from Teshoo Loomboo. These lakes are frequented by multitudes of migratory birds, such as geese, ducks, teal and storks, which on the approach of winter take their flight to milder regions. Prodigious numbers of saurasses, the largest of the crane kind, are seen here at certain seasons of the year, and great quantities of their eggs are collected on the banks. One of the lakes is much venerated by the Bootanners, who fancy it to be a favourite haunt of their deities The vicinity, though a table-land of great elevation, produces a dwarfish wheat of the lammas kind, and to the north there is a plain impregnated with a saline substance resembling natron, and called by the natives of Hindostan, where it is also found in great abundance, soojee-mutty.—(*Capt. S. Turner, &c.*)

CHALCKAUN.—The quarter of Hindostan in which this tract is situated had until lately been so imperfectly explored, that the whole space comprehended under this head was supposed to be an uninhabited sandy desert, and marked as such in the best maps. The recent extension of the British frontier in Gujerat has unsettled that opinion, it having been ascertained that the country, although of an arid and barren aspect, is not an absolute sahara in the African sense of the word, and that although the soil be in general sandy, and destitute of vegetation, yet it contains some cultivated spots, and is interspersed with petty chiefships and stationary tribes, which were probably never even tributary to the Patan or Mogul empires. The tract, however, appears, in the vague geography of Abul Fazel, to have been included in the large soubah or province of Mooltan, and division of Tatta. To the north it is bounded by Ajmeer; on the south it is separated from Cutch by a great salt morass named the Runn; to the east it has the province of Gujerat; and to the

west the territory of Sinde. It is situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude.

The desert, properly speaking, lies between Parkur, the borders of Sinde, and the Pooran river. It commences on the north-west frontier of Cutch, in a flat sandy runn, but soon assumes the thull or hills appearance, which it retains beyond Amercote. Throughout this space there are wells scattered, the vicinity of which is frequented by Waudhs, or hordes of shepherds, with their flocks In various parts there are forts erected by the Sinde government to keep the communication open, and also as depots for their treasure The best of these are named Islamghur, Meethi, and Bulhari Throughout the thull, or sandhill desert, water is only procured from wells, some above one hundred yards deep Occasionally pools of water are formed among the elevations, but they are of very transient duration, indeed it is surprising how a country, so destitute of moisture, can yield so much pasturage as is found in this quarter

Throughout the whole of the thull (sand-hills) and dhat (habitable spots) the south-west monsoon is experienced, but the rains are scanty and irregular In summer the heat is intense: but in winter the air blowing over the sandy expanse is arid and chilly to the feelings In different parts extensive bushy jungles are found, which afford shelter to the flocks. Having never been explored by any European, our information respecting the interior continues defective. According to native testimony there are streams of water towards the north, descending from the hills of Rajpootana, but they are unable to reach the sea, being absorbed on their way by the thirsty soil of the desert.

The proprietors or occupants of this portion of the desert are Rajpoots of the Sodha tribe, who reside, when stationary, in wretched huts, intermixed with different tribes of Mahomedans and Sindeans. The Sodhas are classed among the Hindoos; but are remarkable for the marriage of their daughters with Mahomedans, every man of high rank of that faith in the adjacent countries having Sodha wives, who are eagerly sought after on account of their beauty and talents. Indeed the female Sodhas are so highly esteemed, that a father computes his riches by the number of his daughters, and rejoices in the birth of a female infant, while in the neighbouring provinces of Cutch and Cattywar, the Jharejas most sedulously destroy their female progeny The consequence of this demand is, that pimps and mercuries from nabobs and rajas, under the sacred characters of charons (bards) and religious mendicants, are seen prowling through the waudhs and hovels of the barren desert, seeking wives and concubines for their employers

Such is the tract to the north of Cutch, commonly considered a part of the great desert, and named by ancient Mahomedan writers Chalchkaun, but from what derivative, unknown It occupies the space between Gujerat and the frontiers of Sinde Proper, and the routes, although not yet explored by Europeans, are perfectly well known, and constantly traversed by the natives; and notwithstanding it has received the name of desert, strictly speaking it is not one, as it possesses inhabitants and produces grain —(*Macmurdo, &c*)

CHAMALARI.—An elevated mountain peak of the Himalaya near the confines of Tibet and Bootan, estimated, but without having been satisfactorily ascertained, at 26,000 feet in height, lat 28° 4′ N., lon 89° 23′ E, 125 miles N from the town of Cooch Bahar, in the Bengal district of Rungpoor.

CHAMARGOONDA.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, fifty-six miles E. by N. from Poona, lat. 18° 40′ N, lon. 74° 15′ E.

CHAMBA (*or Champa*).—An extensive district in the province of Lahore, situated to the north of Noorpoor, on both sides of the river Ravey. According to native authorities,

a long ridge of mountains, covered with perpetual snow, separates from the great Himalaya chain near the source of the Beyah, and extending to the south-east, passes near Kangra, then crosses the Ravey, and finally bends north-west towards Cashmere. This ridge, called Pariyat, in general forms the south-eastern boundary of Chamba; but on its southern side the chief also possesses a tract called Rillo, said to have a communication with Cashmere. The exact site of the town of Chamba has not yet been ascertained, but the latest maps place it in lat. 32° 17′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E., 100 miles N E. from Amritsir.

CHAMPA.—See SIAMPA.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHAMPANAGUR.—A considerable town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, three miles west from the town of Boglipoor, lat 25° 14′ N., lon. 86° 55′ E In 1809, including Lakshmigunge, it contained 1,500 houses, mostly occupied by weavers At this place there is a monument of a Mahomedan saint, of some note and great size; for it is said to equal what his length and stature were when alive, which, on this authority, must have been nine cubits. These great dimensions were probably bestowed on the saint from his having been placed among the Jains, whose gods are remarkably long.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHANDA (*chandra, the moon*).—An extensive district in the province of Gundwana, at present comprehended in the reserved territories of the Nagpoor raja. In extreme length Chanda Proper is about eighty geographical miles from north to south, and extreme breadth from east to west about sixty geographical miles; but the area does not amount to more than 3,380 square miles. The northern and western parts are very similar to those of Deoghur, but rather more covered with jungle. To the east and south are mountainous and woody tracts, occupied by Gond zemindars, and adjoining to Choteesghur and Bustar.

When invaded by the Maharattas the rajas of Chanda were Gonds, who paid tribute to the Mogul throne of Delhi. After some fighting, the fort of Chanda was delivered up to Ragojee Bhoonsla the First, in 1749, by Raja Neel Khant Sah's treacherous minister. Before the war of 1803 this country was in a flourishing condition, and the traffic with the sea-coast considerable. Great quantities of salt were then imported, and cottons were sent in return; while coarse cloths were sent to Berar, from whence they ultimately found their way to Bombay and Arabia. The population and commerce, owing to foreign wars and internal convulsions, have since greatly declined. In 1817 the suburbs of Chanda were sacked, and all the cattle of the circumjacent villages swept away; this was followed by a rebellion of the Gond zemindars, during which the country suffered much from their depredations. Famine and cholera raged one year, and in 1822 and 1823 great numbers of cattle were destroyed by disease. In 1818 the collections of this district amounted to 2,33,037 rupees; in 1824, to 3,67,391 rupees; the population, to 306,996 persons. During the reign of Aurengzebe this remote division of Gundwana was named, and annexed by edict to the Mogul empire, although scarcely penetrated by the imperial forces.—(*Jenkins, Captain Crawfurd, Captain Blunt, &c.*)

CHANDA (*or Toork Chanda*).—A populous and strongly fortified town in the province of Gundwana, eighty miles S. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 20° 4′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E. This large town, equal in size to Nagpoor, is situated between two small rivers, the Eeree and Jerpati, which unite at the distance of half a mile from its southern extremity. At the northern extremity is a deep and extensive tank, beyond which are some hills commanding the fortifications. Within the walls, equi-distant from the northern and southern faces, stands

a citadel named the Bala Killa; the rest of the interior consists of straggling streets, detached houses, gardens, and plantations. The walls of Chanda are six miles in circumference, and from fifteen to twenty feet high, are built of cut free-stone, well cemented and flanked by round towers, capacious enough for the largest guns. Of these, when besieged, there were eighty on the works; and the garrison, of whom only a few were Arabs, amounted to 2,000 men. It was taken by assault on the 20th May 1818, the breach being so large and the ascent so easy as to admit of a horse artillery gun being run up; of the garrison about 400 perished, but the British loss was very small, principally occasioned by fatigue and excessive heat, the thermometer during the attack having risen to 145° in the sun. Among the fugitives who escaped was a Gond raja, in whose palace (as it is called) considerable property was found; among the rest, nine lacks of rupees, dug up a few days after the storm. A great variety of European manufactures were also found, especially glass ware and some pictures, for this ancient capital being considered the citadel of the kingdom, had become the grand repository of all that was rare and valuable In 1803 the town of Chanda contained 5,000 houses; in 1808, 4,200; and in 1822, only 2,800 houses.—(*Blacker, Jenkins, &c.*)

CHANDAHNEE (*or Chinnanee*).—A district in the province of Lahore, which in 1783 had a district attached to it, yielding a lack of rupees revenue to its petty prince, who was himself dependent on the chief of Jamboe. The town of Chandahnee is situated in lat. 33° 21′ N., lon. 76° 6′ E., about seventy-six miles S. by E. from Cashmere city, and in 1783 was a neat and populous town. It stands on the brow of a hill, at the foot of which, on the eastern side, runs a rapid stream, crossed on two stout fir beams, one of which reaches from the shore to an insulated rock in the centre, and the other from the rock to the opposite shore. At Dammomunee, in this district, there is an uncommonly beautiful and fertile valley.—(*Forster, &c.*)

CHANDERCONA.—A considerable town in the province of Bengal, district of Hooghly, fifty-five miles W. by N. from Calcutta, lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 87° 44′ E. In 1814 the number of inhabitants amounted to 18,145 persons.—(*J. B. Bayley, &c.*)

CHANDERNAGORE (*Chandranagara*).—A French settlement in the province of Bengal, situated on the west bank of the river Hooghly, about sixteen miles direct distance above Calcutta, lat 22° 49′ N, lon. 88° 26′ E The position of this town is in every respect better than that of Calcutta, the territory originally attached to it extended two miles along the river, and one inland In 1814 an enumeration was made of the houses and inhabitants: when the former were found to amount to 8,484, and the latter to 41,377 persons, the revenue for the preceding year to 42,134 rupees While under the British government, the foreign settlements of Chandernagore, Chinsura, and Serampoor swarmed with receivers of stolen goods, who purchased the stolen property clandestinely imported from the British districts, and, on account of the facilities afforded to this species of traffic, these settlements were resorted to by various classes of native blacklegs, cheats, swindlers, hawkers, pedlars, and fraudulent pawnbrokers

On the 23d March 1757, Chandernagore was taken by the forces under Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, after a most obstinate resistance, and with great slaughter on board the ships engaged. It has since remained unfortified, and has been taken possession of by the British government without opposition on the commencement of hostilities with France. On the 4th December 1816 this settlement was delivered over to Monsieur Dayot, the governor delegated by the French government to receive charge, after having been (with the excep-

tion of a few months in 1802) twenty-three years occupied by British troops and functionaries. —(*W. B. Bayley, J Shakespear, Ives, Rennell, &c.*)

CHANDEREE (*or Chundaree*).—A large district in the province of Malwa, where it occupies an extent of country in the north-east corner, ninety miles from east to west, and seventy from north to south The towns of most note are Raghooghur, Seronge, Khimlassa, and Eesaughur, and the principal rivers the Sinde and Betwa. In 1820 it produced a revenue of five lacks of rupees to its zemindar, Raja Murdan Singh, a tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia The town of Chanderee, whence the name of the district originates, is described as a strong hill-fort with an extensive pettah, both undergoing a rapid decay; lat 24° 32′ N, lon 78° 10′ E, forty-eight miles N N E. from Seronge.—(*Malcolm, &c*)

CHANDODE.—A large town belonging to the Guicowar in Gujerat, the head of a pergunnah, much intersected with ravines and watercourses, thirty-five miles E N E from Broach lat 22° 1′ N, lon. 20° 40′ E It stands on the north bank of the Nerbudda, and is held in considerable veneration by the Hindoos as a place of sanctity.

CHANDOOKEE.—A district in the province of Mooltan, subject to the Ameers of Sinde, situated about the twenty-seventh degree of north latitude, and during the floods completely insulated by the Indus, the Larkhanu, and the Arul rivers, forming an island of a triangular shape, which is reckoned the most productive portion of the province, and in 1813 was said to yield eight lacks of rupees per annum.

CHANDORE.—A fortified town of considerable size in the province of Candeish, into which it commands one of the best passes, eighty-five miles W.N.W. from Aurungabad; lat. 20° 19′ N., lon. 74° 19′ E. The fortress of Chandore commands one of the best passes on the range of hills on which it stands. The hill or rock actually forms the fort, which is naturally strong, being quite inaccessible every where but at the gateway, where alone it is fortified by art, and there is but one entrance of any kind. Notwithstanding this formidable position, it surrendered by capitulation after a feeble resistance in 1804, to a detachment under Colonel Wallace, and during the war of 1818, in consequence of the severe example made by Sir Thomas Hislop at Talnere, the native commandant on the part of Holcar, sent to notify his intention of giving up the place without opposition After passing Chandore, marching north towards the Tuptee, the country is very wild, and occupied by a half-civilized race of Bheels and Patans. After crossing the Tuptee, the road to Oojein passes over mountains to Chooli Mheshwar, on the Nerbudda —(*Maharatta Papers, &c*)

CHANDRAGIRI (*the moon mountain*)—A large square fort in the Malabar province, thirty miles south from Mangalore, situated on the south side of a river of the same name, which is the northern boundary of Malayala or Malabar The country on the south side is called by the natives Tulava, lat 12° 28′ N, lon 75° 7′ E

CHANGAMA —A town in the Salem province, seventy-five miles W by N. from Pondicherry, lat 12° 18′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E This town contains a lofty pagoda, and gives its name to a winding pass of no difficulty, which leads eastward through the chain of mountains dividing the Carnatic from the Barramahal. It stands on the Carnatic side of the pass —(*Fullarton, &c*)

CHANDSIR.—A small town in the British portion of the Candeish province, situated on the Eena river, eight miles E. by S. from Naundoor.

CHANTIBUN (*or Chantibond*).—A province in India beyond the Ganges, formerly a part of the kingdom of

Cambodia, but in 1821 belonged to Siam, having been conquered by Piatack, the Chinese sovereign of Siam. This is a mountainous country near the head of the gulf, forming the eastern boundary of Siam towards Cambodia, from which it is separated by a ridge of mountains At a short distance from the sea-coast there is one of great elevation named Bombasoy, from which an extensive view of the province may be had

The principal exports are pepper, benzoin, lac, ivory, aguilla-wood, rhinoceros' horns, hides of oxen, buffaloes, deer, &c, and gems of inferior quality The forests also abound with excellent timber All the produce is carried to Bankok, the capital of Siam, direct foreign commerce being prohibited The population consists of Chinese, Cochin Chinese, Cambodians, and Siamese, but much the greater proportion are said to be Chinese, who engross the wealth and traffic. In 1821 there were also from 200 to 300 native Christians, who, like those of Siam, were under the care of Joseph Florens, a French priest and bishop of Metellopolis The governor at that date was a Chinese —(*Finlayson*, &c

Chantibun —A town of considerable commerce in the gulf of Siam, the capital of the above province situated about five miles up a small river, in lat 12° 15′ N, lon 102° 1[illegible] E It is an emporium for cardamoms and pepper, cultivated by a resident Chinese population, but the Siamese exclude all strangers —(*Crawfurd*, &c)

Chaikung.—A town or station in Tibet or Southern Tartary, fifty miles N.E from Gangoutri, lat 31° 27′ N., lon 79° 33′ E. This place is the residence of a Chinese zoompoong or governor, who collects the tribute in the neighbourhood, and is said to possess a fortress capable of containing 1,000 men.—(*James Frazer, &c.*)

Charnamagli *(or Soornamucky)* River.—A considerable stream that rises in the mountains above Chandgherry, in the northern district of Arcot, and after traversing the plains over a broad sandy bed, falls into the bay of Bengal.

Charkaira *(or Kairu)* —A town in the province of Candeish, district of Hindia, six miles N.E by E from Hurdah ; lat 22° 27′ N , lon 77° 4′ E

Charwah.—A town with a small square ghurry in the province of Candeish, district of Bugwaneea, sixty-seven miles N E. from Booranpoor , lat 22° 5′ N., lon 76° 57′ E

Chass —A small town in the province of Bengal, district of the Jungle Mahals, situated on the new Benares road, within four miles of the western boundary of the above district and that of Ramghur

Chataperambah —A hill in the province of Malabar rising abruptly from the south bank of the Beypoor river, and about five miles to the eastward of the village of Beypoor, where the Kody Kullo or Pandoo Coolies (ancient caves or cemeteries, respecting the construction of which there is no record) are particularly numerous —(*Babington*, &c)

Chaina —A small town in the province of Bengal, district of the Jungle Mahals 108 miles from Calcutta lat 23° 20′ N , lon 87° E

Chatsoo —A town in the Ajmeer province seventy-four travelling miles S S E from the city of Ajmeer, lat. 26° 38′ N , lon 75° 47′ E This has been a considerable place but is now so much decayed, and the walls so dilapidated that it is almost an open town —(*Fullarton*, &c)

Chatterpoor.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, twenty-six miles east by south from Gualior , lat 26° 10′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E.

Chatterpoor *(Chattrapura)* —A town in the province of Allahabad, situated below the ghauts, about 135 miles W S W. from the city of Allahabad ; lat. 24° 56′ N., lon. 79° 35′

E. It was founded while Bundelcund was ruled by its native chiefs, by Raja Chuttersal, and was occasionally his place of residence, which rendered it flourishing, and a sort of mart between Mirzapoor and the Deccan. From this city, and from the diamond mines of Pannah, almost the whole sayer duties were levied, as there was then no other mercantile town of magnitude in Bundelcund; but, in consequence of the altered condition of Hindostan, it has since greatly decayed. It still, however, manufactures considerable quantities of coarse cotton wrapper, with which it supplies the merchandize passing to and from the Deccan. —(*MSS., Ironside, Rennell, Franklin, &c.*)

Chattoor.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, 112 miles N. by E from Cape Comorin, lat. 9° 41′ N., lon 78° 1′ E

Chattra (*Kshetra*).—A town and place of pilgrimage in Nepaul, eighty-two miles N. by W from Purnea, in Bengal; lat. 26° 53′ N., lon 87° 4′ E Near to this place is the temple of Varaha Kshetra, dedicated to Vishnu in the form of a boar where holy persons of the Hindoo faith sometimes bury themselves alive, on which occasions they are supposed to be inspired with the gift of prophecy —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Chaukfr.—A large district in the province of Mooltan, intersected by the Indus, and situated between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. It belongs to the Ameers of Sinde, but respecting the condition of its interior nothing is known, except that the soil is sandy and indifferently cultivated. The chief town is named Haulla.

Chaukna.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, nineteen miles N. from Poona; lat. 18° 43′ N., lon. 74° 3′ E.

Chaunchra.—A town in the Malwa province, forty-two miles west from Seronge; lat. 24° 8′ N., lon. 77° 3′ E.

Chayenpoor.—A tract of country in Northern Hindostan, formed into a district by the Gorkhas of Nepaul a short time prior to 1809, under the jurisdiction of a subah, who resides at the town of Chayenpoor. The hilly parts of Sikkim, as far as had been subdued, and a portion of Tibet bordering on the Arun river, were annexed to the Chayenpoor subahship, which is bounded by the Sinklaya, Arun, and Kausiki on the west, and to the east was formerly bounded by the Teesta; but since the last Nepaulese war all the conquests made by that people from the Sikkim Raja, east of the Mutchee river, and a line drawn from thence to the hills, having been restored to him, this district may be considered as terminating at the boundaries last specified It consists altogether of lofty mountains, rising in many parts to the most tremendous alps, thinly inhabited, and producing little revenue to the government The forts or stations are Chayenpoor, the capital, Changgeya, and Hidang, a large place towards the frontiers of Tibet, from whence salt (carried on sheep), gold, silver, musk, musk-deer skins, cow tails or chowries, blankets, borax, Chinese silks, and medicinal herbs, are imported The goods sent north from Chayenpoor are rice, wheat, oil, butter, iron, copper, cotton cloth, broad-cloth, catechu, myrobalans, planks of the dhupi, pepper, indigo, tobacco, hides, otter fur, sugar-candy, extract of sugar-cane, and occasionally some pearls. In the western portion of Chayenpoor the most numerous tribe is the Kirauts, next to these the Limboos, then the Magar, then the Khas tribe, and lastly the Rajpoots. Within its limits there are also some Murmis, and towards the north some Bhooteas.)—*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Chayenpoor.—A fortified town in Nepaul, the capital of the preceding district, 110 miles north from Purneah, and five from the Arun river; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 87° E.

Cheduba Isle.—An island in the

Bay of Bengal, lying off the coast of Arracan; lat. 18° 48′ N., lon. 93° 11′ E. It is the most westerly of a cluster, and of a moderate height, with several hummocks on it; length thirty miles, by about ten in breadth. It is but a few miles distant from the main-land, and between the two there is said to be a good harbour; but like the Arracan river it has the disadvantage of a lee shore. Both Cheduba and the adjacent isles are inhabited, and formerly cargoes of rice could be procured here. The interior channel is annually navigated by many Burmese trading boats, but does not afford a safe passage for vessels of burthen. Limestone is found here, and the soil appears well adapted for the cultivation of cotton. Squills are also exported.

This island was taken from the Burmese in 1824 by a British detachment, with the loss of two killed and thirty wounded, and was found to contain only ten paras or small villages. It was hoped that it would have proved a useful acquisition by furnishing supplies to the army: but with the exception of a few buffaloes, no advantage resulted from its capture, and it proved the grave of its garrison. It has not yet been surveyed.—(*Symes, Elmore, Trant, &c.*)

Cheeganee.—A small town in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Cundwah, surrounded by a mud wall, and defended by a small ghurry. In 1820 it contained 200 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Cheepaneer.—A town in the Malwa province, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda river, fifty-two miles S. by W. from Bopaul; lat. 22° 33′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

Cheeraun.—A large town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, situated below Chupra, to which it is almost joined by a continued line of villages.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Cheesapany (*or Cheesaghurry*).—A fortress in the Nepaulese territories, considered of great importance by the Gorkhas as the southern key of the Nepaul valley; lat. 27° 33′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E. Some years ago this fort was small and out of repair, but since the commencement of the disputes with the British government it has been enlarged and strengthened; but it is erroneously placed, as an assailant might go round it, and get so high above as completely to command it. By the Gorkhas it is considered a sort of forlorn hope, there being a practicable road from hence the whole way to Catmandoo unobstructed by fortifications. The name is derived from a spring of cold water, which, according to barometrical observations, is 5,818 feet above the plains of Bengal. At Cheesapany there is a regular custom-house established, where the imposts and duties on articles of traffic from the British and Oude territories are levied.—(*Abdul Russool, Kirkpatrick, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Cheetakeiree.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, pergunnah of Jawud, belonging to Sindia, to whom in 1820 it yielded, with fourteen other subordinate villages, a revenue of 6,450 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Cheltul.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, eighty-three miles N.N.E. from Diu Head, lat. 21° 42′ N., lon. 71° 9′ E.

Cheinpoor.—A large ruined town in the province of Candeish, situated on the Agnee river, on the high road from Bhamghur to Charwah in Sindia's territory. In 1820 it was quite deserted.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Chendree (*or Tanna*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, district of the Northern Concan. Shortly after the appearance of the cholera at this place in 1820, the Catholic Christian fishermen quarrelled with their vicar because he would not permit them to perform certain superstitious pranks (such as dancing franticly in a circle, during which the dancers are sprinkled with coloured water), to propitiate the deity supposed to preside over this malady.

The judge prohibited such practices, but the Cooly Christians continued refractory, and laid a dead body at the door of the court of justice. They also petitioned that a Hindoo priest might be formally authorized to perform the marriage ceremony among them, but the judge declined interfering, and recommended the appointment of a new vicar-general to prevent total apostacy.—(*Babington, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

CHENDWASSA.—A small decayed town in the province of Malwa, the cusba or head of a pergunnah of forty villages, belonging to Holcar's district of Rampoora, from which it lies south eighteen miles, lat. 24° 13′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

CHEPAL.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, ten miles N.E. from the Chur station, lat. 30° 56′ N., lon. 77° 35′ E.

CHERIAGHAUT (*or bird passage*).—A strong pass in the Nepaul territories about seven miles from Beechiaco, but commanded by two hills. The road from hence to Hethaura is very good for loaded cattle, and might be easily rendered fit for carts.

CHERIBON (*in Java*).—See SHERIBON.

CHERICAL.—At present a small subdivision of the Malabar province, situated about the twelfth degree of north latitude, which formerly gave its name to an extensive tract of country then subject to the Cherical Rajas.

CHEROOTER.—A district in the province of Gujerat, extending along the west side of the river Mahy, belonging to the Guicowar and the British government. The principal towns are Cambay, Pitland, Ballasinore, and Beerpoor; but the name as distinctive of a geographical subdivision is now almost obsolete.

CHETROLE.—A town in the province of Cutch, twenty miles N. by W. from Mallia. Lat. 23° 12′ N., lon. 70° 48′ E.

CHICACOLE.—(See CICACOLE.)

CHICANHUALLY.—A large square town in the Mysore, strongly fortified with mud walls, cavaliers at the angles, and in the centre a square citadel, fortified in the same manner. Lat. 13° 25′ N., lon. 76° 40′ E., sixty-seven miles N. from Seringapatam.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHICA BALAPOOR.—A town in the Mysore Raja's territories, also named Chinabalabaram, thirty-six miles N by E. from Bangalore. Lat. 13° 26′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E. Sugar-candy is made here equal to that of China, and the clayed sugar is very white and fine, but the art being a secret, it is sold so dear, that the Chinese sugar-candy can be purchased cheaper at Seringapatam than this can be on the very spot where it is produced.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHICAMULOOR.—A town in the Mysore territories, eighty-five miles N.W. from Seringapatam. Lat. 13° 18′ N., lon. 75° 54′ E.

CHICHACOTTA (*Chichacota*).—A small town situated in the portion of the plain belonging to Bootan, nineteen miles N. from Cooch Bahar, lat. 26° 35′ N., lon. 89° 43′ E. During the rupture that took place in A.D. 1772, Chichacotta was taken by a Bengal detachment from the Bootanners, after having been defended with more obstinacy and personal courage than they usually display; but with matchlocks, sabres, and bows, they could not long contend with firelocks, discipline, and artillery. It was restored to them on the conclusion of the war, and is still, though small, the principal town on this frontier.

CHICHEROWLY.—A fortified town in the province of Delhi, twenty-two miles N.N.W. from Saharunpoor, which was taken possession of in 1818, by a detachment under Brigadier-general Arnold; the chief, Jodh Singh Kulsia, and his people having been refractory. Lat. 30° 15′ N., lon. 77° 21′.

CHICKLEE.—A town in the province of Malwa, eleven miles W.S.W. from

Oojein, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

CHICKOORY (*Chicuri*).—A considerable town, with an extensive bazar, in the province of Bejapoor, twenty-six miles S. from Meritch, lat. 16° 28′ N., lon. 74° 44′ E. This place is pleasantly situated in the midst of an amphitheatre of hills, and intersected by a rivulet which forms a cascade within the town, the neighbourhood of which is noted for producing grapes of an extraordinary size At present it belongs to the Colapoor Raja — (*Fullarton, Moor, &c*)

CHICULDAH.—A small town belonging to Holcar in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, fourteen miles S.E of Hooksee, and twenty-one miles west of Bancaneer; lat. 22° 8′ N., lon 74° 50′E. In 1820 it contained 300 houses, enclosed by a mud wall and a small ruinous ghurry —(*Malcolm, &c*)

CHILAW.—A small town in Ceylon situated on a peninsula formed by two branches of the river; lat. 7° 33′ N., lon. 79° 40′ E., forty-five miles north from Columbo. A pearl fishery is occasionally carried on here, but much inferior to that of Condatchy Bay, yet one year it yielded a revenue of 40,000 pagodas. The coast from Chilaw to Negombo is flat, sandy, and open, with little cultivation.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

CHILKA LAKE.—This lake separates the five Northern Circars towards the sea from the province of Cuttack. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by eight the average breadth; is very shallow, contains many inhabited islands, but towards the north end is much broken into narrow channels, winding among low swampy islands. Its general depth is about four feet and a half, and the greatest six feet, but it is considered to be rapidly filling up. It appears to have been an operation of the sea on a sandy shore, the elevation of which was little above the level of the country within the beach, and native traditions fix this event about the third century of the Christian era. On the N.W it is bounded by a ridge of mountains which extends from the Mahanuddy to the Godavery river, and encloses the Northern Circars towards the interior, it consequently forms a pass on each side into the province of Cuttack, and the southern half presents a diversity of objects, mountains, islands, and forests. Viewed from the sea it has the appearance of a deep bay, the slip of land which separates them not being visible. This is a mere neck of sand, less than a mile, and penetrated by several channels. In 1821 an engineer officer was deputed to examine these, and to report on the practicability of removing the bar that threatened to prevent the ingress and egress of the sea, and thereby injure the government salt manufactures on its banks, obtained by solar evaporation, to the amount of 200,000 maunds annually.

The Chilka lake is navigated by large flat-bottomed boxes called paddy boats, forty-five feet long, seven deep, and five wide, with perpendicular sides, converging by sharp angles to a point at each extremity. North of Paloor the Chilka expands to a magnificent sheet of water, interspersed with a few rocky islands, consisting of huge rounded blocks of a highly indurated porphyritic granite, piled on each other in the wildest confusion and most fantastic shapes. The islands and banks are studded with small hamlets, and fisheries by dams and wicker baskets, are largely carried on for salting and exportation to the interior. The salt is entirely procured by evaporation, without the slightest aid from fire. The banks, and even the naked sands, abound with flocks of antelopes, and birds of the crane family —(*Stirling, Fullarton, Rennell, Public MS. Documents, Upton, &c.*)

CH'HILLI.—A small territory in Northern Hindostan subject to the Nepaulese, situated partly on the plains and partly on the hills bordering the King of Oude's dominions,

about ninety-five miles N.N.E. from Lucknow. The chief's house is situated on a hill, where it is surrounded by 200 huts and houses.

CHILKANA.—A town in the province of Delhi, eight miles N.N.W. from Saharunpoor. Lat. 30° 5′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E.

CHILKAUREE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 102 miles E.N.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E.

CHILKEAH.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, forty-two miles N.E. from Moradabad; lat. 29° 24′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E. This neighbourhood is celebrated for its bamboos, which though small are remarkably tough, and seem to gain consistence and soundness from a certain degree of frost. The same is said also as to the plantains The inhabitants in this neighbourhood have yellow unhealthy skins, a dull fierce look, ragged and scanty clothing, swords, and shields, as in the other part of this inhospitable belt (the Terriani); the place is nevertheless of importance, being one of the principal marts of trade with Kumaon, and through that district with Tibet and Tartary. At certain seasons of the year a great many temporary huts are erected for the accommodation of traders, and here English cloths and Eastern shawls are seen exposed for sale in huts not better than pigstyes. When the unhealthy season returns all these are abandoned and rot to pieces.

CHILMARRY (*Chalamar.*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, situated on the banks of the great Brahmaputra, about 130 miles N. by W. from Dacca; lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 88° 42′ E. This is a place of considerable resort, which in 1810 contained about 400 houses, and was the usual residence of the commissioner of Cooch Bahar; but it is principally remarkable for its vicinity to Varuni Chur. This is an extensive sandbank in the bed of the river, where Hindoo pilgrims in great numbers assemble during a certain festival, and, as is customary on these occasions, transact much commercial business In ordinary years about 60,000 are said to meet; but the number increases to 100,000 when the festival happens on a Wednesday, on which event devotees arrive even from Benares and Juggernauth.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHILLAMBARAM.—A considerable town in the Carnatic, situated on the sea-coast three miles south from Portonovo, and thirty-six miles south of Pondicherry; lat. 11° 28′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E. At a short distance to the south the river Coleroon discharges itself into the sea by three sandy outlets, two of great expanse. Ferry boats are established on two during the south-west monsoon, when the parent river, the Cavery, overflows, but the middle branch is fordable at all seasons. In 1820 there was an extensive indigo concern carried on at Chillambaram, and the islands on the Coleroon were covered with the indigo plant.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CHILLAMBARAM PAGODAS —Hindoo temples in the Carnatic, adjacent to the town of Chillambaram above described There are four pyramidical gateways, facing respectively the four cardinal points, all much in the same style of architecture, and covered with antique sculptures. The whole structure extends 1,332 feet in one direction, and 936 in another, and besides the principal sanctuary contains a spacious tank, numerous choultries, and subordinate temples, which last are all neatly roofed with copper. The interior ceilings of these also are fantastically decorated with mythological paintings; but Sivapati is the principal object of worship. The whole of the architecture has a more ancient appearance than that of Tanjore or Ramisseram.—(*Fullarton, Sonnerat, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

CHINACHIN.—A large scattered place in the Nepaulese dominions, the houses of which are built of brick

and stone, with flat roofs; lat. 29° 13′ N., lon. 81° 15′ E., 160 miles N. by E. from Lucknow. Here are two temples dedicated to Siva, one named Chandranath, and the other Bhairavanath. Merchants from the south repair here to purchase horses, bringing up with them metals, spices, and cloth, and carrying down cow-tails, salt, horses, a kind of woollen cloth, medicinal herbs, and musk. In the markets, according to native accounts, many sheep and goats are exposed to sale, bearing loads of salt, musk, medicinal herbs, and a seed named bariyal bhera In the vicinity are some of the cattle whose tails form the chowries, and they are very numerous in the hilly parts. Of these cattle there are said to be three species, the chowry, the looloo, and the jhogo, the two last having tails bushy from the root; the chowry sort being the most valuable —(*F. Buchanan, &c*)

Chinapatam.—An open town in the Mysore dominions, which in A D. 1800 contained about 1,000 houses, with a handsome stone fort at a little distance, lat. 13° 36′ N., lon 77° 17′ E., thirty-nine miles E.N.E from Seringapatam.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Chinaub (*or Acesines*).—This river has its source in the southern declivity of the Himalaya mountains, near the south-east corner of Cashmere, in the alpine district of Kishtewar, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction until it unites with the Jhylum, or Hydaspes, at Tremmoo Ghaut; lat. 30° 55′ N This is the largest of the Punjab streams At Vizierabad Ghaut, fifty miles north from Lahore, on the 31st of July 1809, it measured one mile three furlongs and twenty perches across, was fourteen feet deep, with a current of about five miles per hour, but at the same place, in the dry season, its channel does not exceed 300 yards across. There is not any ascertained ford to the south of the hills; but it is easily crossed at the points where the banks are low and the bed wide, there being only a short distance in the centre to swim over The banks above the ghauts are low and well wooded, but the trees so small that timber for boat-building is floated down from the hills 150 miles further up, where it is abundant

The ancient Hindoo name of this river is Chandrabhaga, or Chandrasarita, and it is considered to be the Acesines of Alexander. Its junction with the Jhylum is effected with considerable noise and violence, which circumstance is noticed both by the historians of Alexander and Timour. The course of the Chinaub from the snowy mountains to Mittenda ghaut, where combined with the Jhylum it unites with the Indus, may, including windings, be estimated at 650 miles. —(*Rennell, Mac Cartney, Wilford, &c.*)

Chinchew (*or Chang*) Bay.—A spacious bay and harbour in Cochin China, completely sheltered from all winds, but only accessible to large vessels at high water, lat. 13° 50′ N. At the head of this bay the city of Quin-nong is situated

Chinchoor.—A small town in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the road from Bombay to Poona, and about ten miles N.N.W from that city, lat 18° 37′ N., lon. 73° 56′ E. It is pleasantly situated on the banks of a river, and is said to contain 5,000 inhabitants, including 300 Brahmin families But it is principally remarkable as the residence of Chintamun Deo, whom a great proportion of the Maharatta nation believe to be an incarnation of their favourite deity Goonputty. The present (in 1820) is the eighth in descent from the first, and they take alternately the name of Chintamun Deo and Narrain Deo. The Brahmins relate that each Deo on his death has been burned, and invariably a small image of Goonputty has miraculously risen from the ashes, which is placed in a tomb and worshipped. Although the Deo be an incarnation of Goonputty, he performs pooja (worship) to his other self in the form of a statue; for the latter, the Brahmins say, is the greatest, the intensity of his power

not being diminished by the incarnation.

This Deo is *ex officio* a dewannah, or fool; but the term fool does not in this instance, as in most others, give the best translation of the word. He is totally unmindful and ignorant of worldly affairs; unable (the Brahmins say) to hold conversation beyond the proposition, reply, and rejoinder, and then in a childish blubbering manner. In other respects his ordinary occupations do not materially differ from those of other men; for he eats, drinks, takes wives to himself, &c. like other Brahmins. In 1809 the Deo was a boy twelve years old, and in 1820, when Chinchoor was visited by Mr. Fullarton, the same individual was the existing divinity. His palace is an enormous pile of building near the Moota river, on the banks of which the town stands. The floors of this edifice are spread over with the sacred cow-dung, and the apartments crowded with sleek, shining, and well-fed Brahmins. Near the palace are the tombs of former Deos, which are so many small temples, enclosed and planted round with trees, and communicating by steps with the river. Here goes on the business of worship. In one place women are seen pouring oil, water, and milk over the images of the gods; in another, children decking themselves with flowers. Here pilgrims and devotees performing their ablutions; and there priests chanting portions of the sacred poems: the whole proceeding with the most listless indolence and apathy.—(*Lord Valentia, Moor, M. Graham, &c.*)

CHINGLEPUT (*or the jaghire*).—The ancient acquisitions of the East-India Company in the Carnatic porvince formerly denominated the jaghire, now form the collectorate of Chingleput. To the north it is bounded by the Nellore district; on the south by the southern division of Arcot; on the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the northern and southern Arcot districts. The space originally termed the jaghire extends northward to the Pulicat lake; southwards to Allumparva, and westward to Conjeveram, being about 108 miles along shore, and forty-seven inland in the widest part, containing altogether 2,440 square miles.

The soil of this district is in most parts indifferent. Rocks, or large detached masses of granite, project in the fields, and almost every where the country is overrun with low prickly bushes, yet the palmyra thrives without trouble, and is both cheap and abundant. The tari or fermented juice, and the jagary or inspissated juice of the tree (the *borassus flabelliformis*) are much esteemed, and could the latter be converted to sugar or to a palatable spirituous liquor, the barren plains of the Carnatic might be rendered productive. Bamboos are very scarce, and sell for three times their cost in Calcutta, but recently the inhabitants have been encouraged to plant them round their houses. At Sri Permaturu there is a tank equal to the watering of 2,500 acres.

The tract of territory named the Jaghire was obtained in 1750 and 1763 from the nabob of Arcot, in return for services rendered to him and to his father by the Company, and was rented to the nabob on renewed leases until 1780, when the Madras presidency assumed the direct management. This district was twice invaded by Hyder Ali, in 1768 and in 1780, when he ravaged it with fire and sword so effectually, that at the termination of the latter war, in 1784, hardly any other signs were left in many parts of the country of its ever having been inhabited than the bones of the massacred, and the naked walls of the houses, choultries, and temples that had been destroyed. To the havoc of war succeeded a destructive famine; and the emigration, from these combined causes, nearly completed the depopulation of the country. In 1790 the jaghire was divided into two collectorships; but in 1794 was united again, under the management of Mr. Place, who continued un-

til 1798, during which period it gradually improved. Annual village settlements continued to be made until 1802, when the permanent assessment took place, the lands having previously been divided into sixty-one estates, sold to individuals, and bearing an assessment of from 2,000 to 5,000 pagodas. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in all its branches amounted to 413,034 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 363,129 persons. Besides Madras, the principal towns are Chingleput and Conjeveram — (*F. Buchanan, Fifth Report, Rennell, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

CHINGLEPUT (*Singhalapetta*).—The capital of the preceding district, situated on a stream that falls into the Palaur, half a mile west of the town; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 80° E., thirty-eight miles S.S.W. from Madras. Chingleput lies in a small valley confined on all sides by hills, and nearly half covered by the waters of a beautiful artificial lake. The town without the walls is little better than a large village; but the fort is an immense work, and has been of great strength, though now decayed, and the ramparts overgrown by peepul-trees and creepers, and garrisoned by a few invalids. It encloses various buildings, and is overtopped by the battlements of an inner fort, where in the ruins of a palace the public functionaries of the station hold their courts and offices. In A.D. 1751 the French took Chingleput; but it was retaken in 1752 by Capt. Clive, after a short siege.—(*Fullarton, Orme, &c.*)

CHINI.—A large village in Northern Hindostan, district of Kunawar, contiguous to which are several others, 10,200 feet above the level of the sea, at which enormous elevation grapes are found in the greatest perfection, eighteen different varieties being cultivated in Kunawar. In the vicinity of this place there is much cultivated land, and many luxuriant vineyards. Opposite are the huge Ralldang peaks.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

CHINNOOR.—A small town in the province of Beeder, seventy miles N. from Warangol; lat. 18° 53′ N., lon. 79° 39′ E.

CHINSURA (*Chinchura*).—A Dutch settlement in the province of Bengal, situated on the west side of the Hooghly, eighteen miles direct distance from Calcutta: lat. 22° 52′ N., lon. 88° 28′ E. The first factory of the Dutch East-India Company was erected here in 1656, and the site, on the whole, is much preferable to that of Calcutta. In 1769 Chinsura was blockaded by the Nabob of Bengal's forces to compel the payment of arrears of duties, although the province was then actually possessed by the English East-India Company. In 1814 the total revenues of Chinsura and Barnagore amounted to 17,988 rupees.

Schools were established at Chinsura and in its vicinity, with the view of instructing native children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, in the Bengalese language, on an improved and economical system. In 1814 the total number of children on the books of fifteen village schools was 1,060; and the number of those who regularly attended, 861. The greater proportion of the teachers were Brahmins; the remainder, of the writer caste. A few of the more advanced boys were taught English, chiefly as a reward for their proficiency in their own language and general good conduct; but it is very desirable that this branch of education should be more directly encouraged, so that the English language may occupy the place of the Persian (also a foreign language) in public courts and documents, and bring the conquerors and the conquered to a closer community of interests and ideas. — (*Stavorinus, Rennell, May, &c.*)

CHINRAYAPATAM (*Chin Raya Patam*).—A town in the Mysore raja's territories, thirty-seven miles N. by W. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 52′ N., lon. 76° 29′ E.

Chipula Peak.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, fifty miles N.E. from Almora, and eight N.W. from the Cali river; lat. 29° 56′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E.; 13,257 feet above the level of the sea.

Chibaleea.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, in the valley of Neony, which in 1820 contained about 1,000 inhabitants.

Chircari.—A town in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles N.E. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 26′ N., lon. 79° 43′ E.

Chirgong.—A town in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles N.E. from Jansi, lat. 25° 34′ N., lon. 78° 41′ E.

Chiring. — A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, thirty-nine miles E.S.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 6′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E.

Chitlong.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, situated in a small valley named Lahong Nepaul, which formerly belonged to the rajah of Lalita Patan, lat 27° 38′ N., lon. 84° 49′ E. In 1790 it contained a few well-built brick and tiled houses, of two and three stories, and was principally inhabited by Newars. The winters here are never severe, and at that season the fields produce a crop of wheat, while in summer they yield one of rice.—(*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Chitore.—See Odeypoor Principality.

Chitoung.—A town in the kingdom of Pegu situated on the east side of a river of the same name, about a mile in breadth, to the west of which the country is flat. In the neighbourhood are a few straggling villages, and the country generally is but thinly inhabited.—(*Carey, Jun.*)

Chitowa.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirty-three miles south from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 33′ N., lon. 77° 39′ E.

Chittagong (*Chatuigrama*).—A district in the province of Bengal, of which it occupies the south-eastern extremity. To the north it is bounded by the Tipera district; on the south, by Arracan; to the east it has the Burmese empire; and on the west the sea. In length it may be estimated at about 120 miles, by twenty-five the average breadth. In 1784 this district was estimated to contain about 2,987 square miles of unproductive hilly country and plain arable land, in the proportion of two to one, and was originally subdivided into four moderately large, and 140 very small pergunnahs, partitioned among 1,400 landholders. This distribution originated in consequence of the whole district having formerly been assigned for the militia, or garrison troops, constantly maintained here for protection against the incursions of the Mughs of Arracan; these in process of time became zemindaries, when the military establishment ceased to be necessary. The islands of Hattia, Sundeep, and Bameeny, although separated from Chittagong by large arms of the sea, frequently impassable during stormy weather, are subordinate to the jurisdiction of its magistrate. Throughout this district the rainy season sets in earlier, and continues later, than in most other parts of the Bengal province, and sometimes is not over until the middle of November.

The Chittagong river has been surveyed, but has not been found sufficiently deep for ships of any considerable burthen; and although there are a great many openings on the sea-coast between that and the Arracan river, yet after a strict survey, it has been found that their mouths are all choked up by sand-banks, so as only to admit ships of very small draft of water over the bar. One opening, about forty miles south of Islamabad, leads into a commodious harbour behind the island of Kutubdea, where there is water for a ship of any size; but its mouth is so surrounded with shoals and sand-banks for a considerable way out to sea, and the whole upper part of the bay of Bengal is so full of unascertained dangers, that it is

probable the Kutubdea harbour would never become of practical utility to ships of large burthen.

In 1814 it was ascertained that the southern portion of Chittagong, towards the Nauf, was not so mountainous or impervious a country as had been supposed. The names put down in Major Rennell's map are not those of villages but vallies, there not being any villages or small towns between Islamabad and Ramoo. The Bengalese here live in detached houses; but at stated times, once or twice a week, assemble in open market places to buy and sell what is wanted, and occasionally a huckster's shop may be met with. Between the different ranges of hills there are many plains and vallies, susceptible of great improvement, of which description are the plains of Chuckareah, Ramoo, and Gurganeah, the last estimated at ten miles extent each way, having the river Cali winding through it. Until about 1783, the cultivators of this portion of Chittagong were all Bengalese Hindoos, but after the conquest of Arracan in that year by the Burmese, a large migration of Mughs into the British territories took place, some few of whom adopted agricultural pursuits, but the majority became petty traders in wood, gurjan, oil, cotton cloths, cotton, bamboo mats, and similar commodities; while others settled as mechanics, canoe builders, cutters of wood for ship planks, and crooked timber for knees. In this tract the soil is so fertile, that very little labour insures redundant crops. In 1814 the Mugh population settled within twelve miles of Ramoo was very numerous, and at that date Coxe's Bazar alone contained 800 Mugh huts, all inhabited by that race, who were very submissive to the expatriated chiefs and priests residing among them.

Remote from the sea-coast the interior of Chittagong has a hilly surface, at present much covered with jungle, but, there is reason to suppose, adapted for the cultivation of coffee, pepper, and the valuable spices of the East; but owing to its peculiar mountainous and maritime topography, the district generally is exposed to several disadvantages incidental to its situation. The landed proprietors whose estates lie along the sea shore, are compelled to guard them against the invasions of that element; while those of the interior, being subject to inundations from the mountain torrents, are obliged to observe similar precautions, and in reality the exertions of the inhabitants to preserve their crops is deserving of commendation. At the time of the decennial land settlement, the waste lands were excluded from the settlement by circumstances peculiar to the district, but when cleared they all become liable to the public revenue Landed property here is for the most part distributed into very small portions, among numerous proprietors, occasioning everlasting disputes respecting boundaries. Exclusive of the Mugh settlers, the total number of inhabitants in 1801 was estimated at 1,200,000; but this appears a large number when the limited area and physical circumstances of the district are considered. The Mahomedans here exceed the Hindoos in the proportion of three to two, but so little bigotted are they, that many have adopted the Brahminical doctrines of caste and purity; and it is remarkable also, that although Chittagong was so long possessed by the adherents of Buddha, in 1801 it scarcely contained one Buddhist of hereditary growth.

The eastern limits of this district have never yet been accurately explored, and remain to this day perfectly undefined. The total width between the Nauf river on the sea-coast, and the Zhenubium on the side of Ava, is 124 miles east and west, one-half of which is watered by rivers flowing towards the Bay of Bengal; and the other by streams running into the Irawaddy; nearly the whole space occupied by rude aboriginal tribes, more resembling the Burmese than the Hindoos. As we advance further north, the breadth of

these wilds is increased by low hills, adjacent on the west to the Mugh mountains of Major Rennell, where a ledge of rocks stops the further ascent of the Karnaphuli river, and occasions waterfalls. These tribes (named Tripura, Joomea, and Chakma) cultivate cotton and rice, and rear hogs, goats, and poultry, which they exchange with the Bengalese for salt, iron, earthenware, and fish; but they do not appear to have aggregated into numerous societies, or to have any dependence on a general chief of their respective nations. East of these rivers is a fine valley watered by the Karnaphuli, or Ear-ring river, and further east a chain of low hills, thinly occupied by a Mugh population.

At its mouth the Karnaphuli (named by Europeans the Chittagong river) forms a safe harbour, but so deeply embayed, that during the south-west monsoon ships get to sea with great difficulty. At Patarghaut, the ferry from Islamabad towards the south, its channel is about a mile wide; at Koriliya Pahar (or hill), it diminishes to about 200 yards, but the tide continues to flow upwards strongly. East from the Koriliya Pahar is a fine valley called Runganiya, cultivated by Bengalese, although some portions still belong to the hereditary chief of the Mughs; but beyond this valley no Bengalese have settled, the low hills there being occupied by rude independent tribes, including Mughs, whose chief in 1798 also possessed land as a zemindar within the British limits. In the vicinity of these Mugh hamlets small plots of land are cleared, on which plantain trees, ginger, betel-leaf, sugar-cane, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and capsicums are raised. These are their permanent places of abode, but at their Jooms they have temporary villages, changed every year, and only occupied during the season of cultivation. In the permanent villages (or parns), the houses are forty feet long by twenty broad, raised on posts twelve feet from the ground, and ascended by a notched stick, but on the whole much more comfortable than the slight huts of the Bengalese peasantry. The tract, however, notwithstanding the natural richness of the soil, is thinly inhabited, and produces little; the chief's revenue being derived from a poll tax.

These Mughs seem to be the remains of the first colony from Arracan that occupied Tripura, on the re-conquest of that territory from the Mahomedans. The men have adopted the Bengalese dress, but the females retain that of Arracan and Ava. They eat every thing, and with any body, but do not intermarry with strangers. Although their rivers and morasses swarm with fish, they have never acquired the art of catching them, and are consequently obliged to employ Bengalese fishermen. The Blue Mountain is named Meindaun by the Mughs, and Munipahar by the Bengalese. A peak rises to the height of between 5,000 and 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, but at Baikal, where a spur from it crosses the Karnaphuli, the ridge is not above 700 feet in height.

This district possesses the advantage of having an accessible seaport, its capital, Islamabad, being extremely well situated for external commerce, as well as for the construction of ships of large dimensions, and of these a considerable number are built annually, both of imported timber and of that indigenous to the country. The exports consist chiefly of timber, planks, canvas, coarse cloths, stockings, umbrellas, and on the sea-coast the government has a large establishment for the manufacture of salt. A considerable profit accrues also to the sovereign from the elephants caught in the forest, which are of an excellent quality, and particularly well suited both for the camp and the chase. The best are received from the contractor on certain conditions, and agreeably to a fixed standard of height, the remainder he sells on his own account, and are dispersed all over Hindostan. Chittagong is much resorted to by the European residents in Bengal, on account of the benefi-

cial effects experienced from the salubrity of its climate, sea air, and salt-water bathing, presenting in this respect a remarkable contrast to the more southern province of Arracan; yet, with the exception of a denser population and superior cultivation possessed by the first, the physical circumstances of the two are very much the same.

About twenty miles to the north of Islamabad there is a remarkable hot-well named Seetacoond, the gazeous exhalations on the surface of which may be inflamed by the application of fire, and, like all other unusual natural phenomena, is held sacred by the Hindoos. The river Nauf, which, until the conquest of Arracan, formed the extreme southern boundary of the Bengal presidency in this quarter, is above seventy miles to the south of Islamabad, the seat of the provincial government, and residence of the British magistrate. It is not navigable, as it becomes very shallow a few miles above Teaknauf, a village situated at its junction with the sea. The banks of this river continue for the most part covered with jungle, interspersed with scanty spots of cultivation, and a few wretched hamlets, where dwell the poorer classes of herdsmen, and families of roving hunters, who catch, tame, and occasionally eat wild elephants, the aborigines of these forests. The incessant alarm and devastation caused formerly by its being a frontier situation, and the vicinity of the Mughs and Burmese, have retained these tribes in a half-savage state; but they, as well as the hill people named Choomeas, will acquire settled and industrious habits when protected from external violence, and allowed to possess, undisturbed, any moderate portion of the soil.

Chittagong, it is probable, originally belonged to the extensive, independent, and barbarous kingdom of Tripura; but being a frontier province, where the two religions of Brahma and Buddha came in contact, it was sometimes governed by sectaries of one doctrine and sometimes by those of the other. There is reason to believe it was taken from both about the beginning of the sixteenth century by the Afghan kings of Bengal, and afterwards, during the wars between the Moguls and Afghans, reverted to the Buddhists of Arracan. It was visited by the Portuguese so early as A.D. 1581, who were influenced by the then Raja of Arracan to settle in considerable numbers, and from thence, in conjunction with the Mughs or Arracaners, infested and desolated the south-eastern quarter of Bengal, which, distant as the period is, has not recovered its population or agriculture.

In 1638, during the reign of the Emperor Shah Jehan, Makat Ray, one of the Mugh chiefs who held Chittagong subordinate to the Arracan Raja, having incurred his displeasure, and apprehending an attack, sought the Mogul sovereign's protection. This is the earliest notice of the superiority of this territory having been acquired by the Delhi sovereign, nor was it taken possession of until 1666: yet long prior to this date, in 1582, it is regularly enumerated by Abul Fazel as an integral portion of the Mogul dominions. In 1666, Shaista Khan, the soubahdar of Bengal, equipped a powerful fleet at Dacca, despatched it down the Megna river, under the command of Omeid Khan, who having previously conquered the island of Sundeep, proceeded against this country, and laid siege to the capital Although strongly fortified, and containing, according to Mahomedan historians, 1,223 cannon of different calibres, it made but a feeble resistance; and on its surrender, a new name (Islamabad) having been imposed, it was with the district permanently attached to the Mogul empire.

At a very early period this province attracted the notice of the English East-India Company, who in 1686 proposed to remove their factory from Hooghly to Chittagong, and there establish by compulsion a strong fortified residence. In 1689, during a rupture with the Emperor Aureng-

zebe, an English fleet appeared off Chittagong, with the intention of effecting its conquest: but owing to indecision nothing was done; nor would the result have answered the Company's expectations had the object contemplated been accomplished. In A.D. 1760 it was finally ceded to the East-India Company by the Nabob Jaffeir Ali Khan.

In 1795 his Burmese Majesty, learning that three of his rebellious subjects and their adherents, or robbers as he called them, had taken refuge in Chittagong, without any previous communication marched a body of 5,000 troops across the frontier in pursuit of them; but their progress was soon arrested by a detachment from the Bengal army, and after a protracted negotiation, they were induced to withdraw amicably within their own boundaries. From this period an incessant migration of Mughs from Arracan commenced, which also became the asylum of all the adjacent insurgent chiefs from the Burmese dominions, especially a leader named King-ber-ring, whose followers were estimated at 3,000 men. The situation of the fugitive Mughs was in many respects very deplorable. They had fled from Arracan, to escape the unrelenting and undistinguishing fury of the Burmese, into the pestiferous jungles of Chittagong, where they erected temporary huts, and endeavoured to prolong their miserable existence. Here they were assailed by the rebel King-ber-ring, and compelled to join his party or fly. Those who fled, were urged by the pangs of hunger to seize the victuals of the British cultivators, and were in consequence attacked by the troops stationed to protect the latter. With a view to ameliorate their condition, the Bengal government endeavoured to settle them on the lands of a hill chiefly in the back parts of Chittagong, but great difficulty attended the arrangement. These refugee Mughs, from a national hatred to the Burmese, still continued clandestinely to join the insurgents, and thereby justified the Ava sovereign in asserting, that the British government had organized a den of rebels for the molestation of the Burmese territories: yet it was wholly beyond the power of the first to eradicate the insurgents, so long as they remained secluded in the remote and unwholesome hills and jungles, seven days' journey from the sea-coast, where after repeated defeats they were always sure to find an inaccessible asylum. Compared with these Mughs, the Bengalese are small, weak-bodied men; whereas the Arracaners are strong, muscular, and active, and inured to hardships. The Bengalese also being unarmed and naturally pacific, made no resistance to the Mugh marauders, who were, however, easily discomfited by a few regular sepoys under native officers. The above recriminations between the two governments continued without intermission from 1795 until 1824, when hostilities commenced, which ended the dispute by the expulsion of the Burmese from the province of Arracan, and the restoration of the Mughs to their native country. —(*J. Grant, F. Buchanan, Stewart, Public MS. Documents, Pechel, Ker, Morgan, &c.*)

CHITTAPET.—A small town in the Carnatic, seventy-eight miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 56′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E. During the Carnatic wars of the last century this was a fortress of considerable importance, even in that land of fortresses, and sustained many sieges. It was finally taken by Col. Coote, after the battle of Wandewash, and made but a slight resistance.—(*Orme, &c.*)

CHITTELDROOG (*Chitra Durga*).—A town and fortress in the Mysore Raja's dominions, and the capital of a district; lat. 14° 4′ N., lon. 76° 30′ E. By the natives it is named Sitala Durga, which signifies the spotted castle; and also Chatracal, which means the umbrella rock. The fortress stands on a cluster of rocky hills forming the extremity of the Chitteldroog ridge, the height of the most elevated peak probably not exceeding 800 feet. The pettah which stretches along the base of the droog on the north-east, is en-

closed by ramparts of granite, very solid and well cut, although now in some parts dilapidated, with round towers at intervals, a spacious ditch excavated from the rock, and a regular wide-spread glacis. The town within is not of great size or population, but the principal street is remarkably spacious.

Scarcely elevated above the pettah is the lower fort, a separate enclosure, containing the former poligar's palace, now occupied by the British commandant; a reservoir supplied from a magnificent tank above with a perpetual stream of fine water, which it distributes to all parts of the town; a well (or bowly), and other ancient structures, besides the bungalows of the officers. Ascending the droog from hence under six successive gateways at different heights, and traversing an endless labyrinth of fortifications, all of solid masonry, winding irregularly up from rock to rock to the summit, guarding every accessible point, and forming enclosure within enclosure in the usual style of the fortified rocks in the south of India, of which Chitteldroog is probably the most elaborate specimen extant. The ascent is partly by steps and partly by almost superficial notches, cut in the steep and smooth surface of the rock, and scaled with great difficulty. The more exposed points are crowned with batteries, and the fort contains two beautiful tanks of water, various temples and other Hindoo structures, and a deep magazine well sunk in the rock, as a depôt for ghee.

Chitteldroog owes its strength not so much to its elevation as to the steepness of the acclivity on which it stands; and such is the intricacy of the works, that an enemy might be master of the outer walls, and yet not materially advanced towards the reduction of the droog. On the other hand, this very complexity renders the place more liable to partial surprises. The ruins of the buildings in which General Matthews and other English prisoners were confined in 1783, are still pointed out to strangers. Although actually within the Mysore raja's territories, Chitteldroog is constantly occupied by a British garrison, as it connects the great southern line of defence, extending from Madras to the Malabar coast, with the more advanced line of fortification in the Balaghaut ceded territories.

In a dell among the mountains, at a short distance to the west of Chitteldroog, there is a curious suite of dark subterranean apartments, which appear to have been excavated, then completed with masonry, and afterwards stuccoed. They have probably been the habitations of devotees, who, from the various mythological symbols scattered about, would appear to have been worshippers of Siva. Almost every village, however, in this neighbourhood has a peculiar deity of its own, most of them with destructive propensities. The natives propitiate their good offices by putting an iron hook through the skin under their shoulder-blades, by which they are suspended on high to a moveable transverse beam, like the yard of a ship, and thus swung round for a considerable time, sometimes one at each end. The country round Chitteldroog was nearly depopulated by the repeated ravages it sustained during the last Mysore war of 1799, but is now much recovered. The fortress is famous above all stations in India for the great variety and excellence of its fruits, including the apple, orange, and nectarine.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CHITTOOR (*Chautur*).—A town and small pollam or estate on the western frontier of the Carnatic, eighty-two miles west from Madras; lat. 13° 15′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E. These pollams came into the possession of the British government in 1801, and the poligars were expelled in 1804, the lands having been permanently assessed in 1802. The country of Chittoor and the western poligars is very strong, being placed between the range of hills that bound the Balaghaut and a second chain, approaching within a few miles of the sea, near to the lake

of Pulicat. These form an irregular concave sweep, of varied elevation, stretching to within a short distance of Madras.—(*5th Report, Wilks, &c.*)

CHITTRA.—A town surrounded by jungles in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, where it is the head station of the judge and magistrate; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E., 110 miles N. by W. from Calcutta.

CHITTROO.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, situated on the new Benares road, 214 miles N.W. from Calcutta. From this place the road ascends to the crest of the Toolkee hill, which is the most elevated point between Calcutta and Benares, and commands an extensive prospect of the Hazary Baugh table-land, and the rugged tracts to the south and eastward. On the summit of the hill, close to the road, there is a telegraphic signal-post, part of the telegraphic line of communication recently established between Calcutta and Chunar.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CHITWAY (*Setava*).—A town in the province of Malabar, situated on the sea-coast, thirty-nine miles N. by W. from Cochin; lat. 10° 31′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E. This place stands on an island twenty-seven miles long, and in some places five broad, named Chitway by Europeans, and by the natives Manapuram. It consists of two sections, Shetuvai and Alipuram, and is separated from the continent by inlets of salt water, which form the northern part of an excellent inland navigation. The soil of this island is generally poor, and although the whole may be considered as a plain, the rice fields are small in proportion to the elevated land that rises a few feet above the level of the sea. The shores of the island are covered with cocoa-nut palms, from the produce of which the revenue is chiefly derived, and the whole in 1800 was rented by the British government to the Cochin raja for 30,000 rupees per annum, but he possesses no legal jurisdiction over the inhabitants. A slave here, when thirty years old, costs about 100 fanams, or £2. 14*s*. 7*d*.; with a wife the price is double. Children sell for fifteen to forty-six fanams, or from 8*s*. 2½*d*. to 21*s*. 10*d*.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHOGDAH.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Nuddea, situated on the east bank of the Hooghly river, about thirty-four miles above Calcutta; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 88° 38′ E. This spot was formerly noted for the voluntary drownings of the Hindoos; but latterly the expiation has become a mere ceremony, seldom leading to any fatal result.

CHOKEEGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, and circar of Raisseen, situated on the top of a hill two miles north of Chynpoor Barree. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to the Nabob of Bopaul; lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 78° 15′ E. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

CHOLEE.—A small town in the province of Malwa, about seven miles almost due north of Mheyshur; lat. 22° 9′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E. It was formerly a large town, but Aliah Bhye having fixed her residence at Mheyshur, it soon decayed, and in 1820 contained only 175 houses. It is also named Cholee Mheyshur.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

CHOOASEE.—A fortified native station in the province of Lahore, principality of Sukaid, sixteen miles west from Rampoor in Bussaher, and five miles north from the Sutuleje; lat. 31° 25′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E; 10,744 feet above the level of the sea.

CHOOBZEE CHANG.—A town or station in Tibet, twenty-three miles N.E. from Chaprung; lat. 31° 34′ N., lon. 79° 58′ E.

CHOOMPHOON.—A considerable town in Siam, on the road from Ligor to Bankok, situated on the right bank of a river of the same name. In 1826 it was stockaded, and said to contain 8,000 inhabitants. It was formerly the entrepôt of a valuable commerce with Tenasserim, but on the conquest of that province by the

Burmese it was converted into a military post, where a force was established to watch the kidnapping incursions of the Burmese.—(*Leal, &c.*)

CHOORKI.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Agra, ten miles west of Jaloun; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 79° 29′ E.

CHOOROO.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Bicanere, in which it ranks after the capital; lat. 28° 12′ N., lon. 74° 35′ E., 107 miles W. by N. from the city of Bicanere. This place is a mile and a half in circumference, without including the suburbs, and being situated among naked sand-hills, its external appearance is imposing. The walls and houses are constructed of a lime-stone so purely white as to give every thing composed of it an extremely neat appearance; but this material is very soft, and gradually crumbles to a white powder, sometimes mixed with shells. Large beds of this calcareous substance are found in many parts of the Ajmeer desert, which, advancing west from Chooroo, increases in sterility. Chooroo is reckoned the second town in the Bicanere dominions; but its chief is rather a dependent than a subject of the Bicanere rajas. In 1817 it was plundered by one of Meer Khan's sirdars, and in 1818 was visited by a British detachment, the governor, Purthi Singh, having abandoned it the day before. It was subsequently transferred to the Bicanere raja: but so averse were the inhabitants to this arrangement, that they threatened to emigrate to the Jeypoor raja's territories.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

CHOPRAH.—A large town in the province of Candeish, which formerly belonged to the Peshwa, was given by him to Holcar, and acquired by the British at the treaty of Mundessor; lat. 21° 41′ N., lon. 75° 23′ E., fifty-eight miles west from Boorhanpoor. It is the head of a pergunnah which, in 1820, yielded only 50,000 rupees per annum, the surrounding country being much covered with jungle.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

CHORCHET.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, situated about seven miles S.W. from the Mokundra pass. In 1820 it contained about 1,600 inhabitants.—(*MS. &c.*)

CHOTEESGHUR (*or thirty-six forts*).—A large district in the province of Gundwana, at present the most eastern possession of the Nagpoor Maharattas. By the Mahomedans it was formerly denominated Jeharcund; but the name properly applies to the whole province, rather than to any particular subdivision. The form of the country, excluding Kuronde and Bustar, approaches nearly to an oval, the longest diameter lying north and south. Choteesghur is of great extent, being 260 miles in length, and every where surrounded by hills The range near Lanjee to the west, the mountains of Omerkuntuc to the north, and those near Sirgoojah to the north-east, are the most woody and inaccessible. Sonakhun to the south-east is also strong, from the closeness of the bamboo jungle, and suddenness of the ascents. In the centre this district is open and level, or at most slightly undulated. It is separated from the British newly acquired dependencies of Sirgoojah and Sumbhulpoor, by the Sirgoojah and Koorba ranges of hills, following the course of the Hatsoo river from Omerkuntuc to within ten miles of the Mahanuddy river.

Under the Bhoonslas this province was long managed as a distinct appanage successively of Beembajee, Moodhajee, Veerojee, and Appa Saheb. The government lands occupy the centre, and are surrounded by tributary zemindars. The proportions these bear to each other has not yet been ascertained, but the first are generally most open and best cultivated; the latter, indeed, with the exception of Kawurdah and Pandurια, are not more than one-fourth under tillage. In Choteesghur tanks are numerous, particularly at Ruttunpoor, Ryepoor, Dhumdah, &c., where, besides assisting the rice cul-

tivation, they have been made to strengthen the fortified places in their vicinity, being mostly artificial excavations, some of them surrounded with masonry.

The moral character of the inhabitants of this district appeared to Col. Agnew to be superior to that met with in most parts of India. Murders are rare, and in most parts originate from jealousy or suspicion of witchcraft, both causes universally considered sufficient to justify the perpetration of the crime. In witchcraft, spells, and incantations, all classes here are firm believers, and many tragical consequences ensue from these base superstitions. This difficult art, however, is supposed in Choteesghur to be possessed almost exclusively by old women, some of whom bring themselves to believe that they actually are possessed of the power and knowledge imputed to them, although the confession of such an accomplishment subjects them to expulsion from their castes, cruel treatment, and occasionally to immediate death. The usual process to ascertain their genuineness is to tie them in a bag and throw them into the water, when if they sink they are considered innocent; if they float, guilty.

There are two very wild tribes to be found in the hills north of Choteesghur, one of which, named the Binderewas, reside in the hilly and woody country near Ruttunpoor, more especially in the Koorba and Sirgoojah hills; but they are so rarely seen by the other inhabitants, that their existence has been called in question. They are described as being equally destitute of religion and clothes, houses or huts, seeking shelter in the jungle like wild beasts, feeding on the fruit of the mowah and taindoo trees; yet they are said to cultivate small patches of coarse grains. According to native reports, they destroy and eat their relations, when too old to move about, and also such travellers as they can catch. The other tribe are the Pandeeas, who are less wild than the Binderewas, and free from all suspicion of cannibalism. Both have distinct dialects, unintelligible to the more civilized inhabitants. Within the limits of this district there is a class of Mahomedans, who make bracelets and dye cloths, distinguished by the name of Toorkarees, who, notwithstanding their profession of the Arabian faith, are said to worship Hindoo idols, and to besmear their houses with cow-dung. The females, in particular, of this tribe are strict observers of all the Hindoo rites and ceremonies, and reject Mahomed and his doctrines.

The ancient history of Choteesghur is little known; it seems probable however that it was once in a more flourishing condition than it at present exhibits. An old record still existing, details the names of many villages long extinct, and the ruins of Sinpoor on the right bank of the Mahanuddy, twenty miles north of Aring (said to have been the capital of the very ancient Hindoo dynasty of Byram Deo in Kuwurdah), and the ruins of many temples and buildings scattered over the country, indicate a former state of prosperity, and a more numerous population. This province was for ages under the sway of a family of Ashwapati, of Rajbungsi princes, one of whom, named Kullean Singh, was seized and carried to Delhi by the imperial army that entered the country in pursuit of the Ranny of Gurra Kultanjee near Jubbulpoor. During his captivity he agreed to become tributary to the emperor: notwithstanding which submission, until its final conquest by the Maharattas about 1752, this country seems to have been generally exempt from all foreign control, and its original institutions to have remained unaltered. The revenue collections of the modern district of Choteesghur, in 1818-19, under the British system, amounted to 331,470 rupees; in 1824 to 385,840 rupees.—(*Jenkins, Agnew, &c.*)

Choudan's Country.—An extremely mountainous country in

Northern Hindostan within the British limits, and consisting of a kind of Doab, between the fork of the Cali and Doulee rivers, about lat. 30° N., and lon. 80° 40′ E., bordering on the Nepaulese territories east of the Cali.

Choul.—An ancient town on the sea-coast of Aurungabad, thirty miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 18° 31′ N., lon. 73° 2′ E. This was a place of considerable importance during the Bhamenee dynasty of the Deccan, being mentioned as such by Ferishta.

Choundkot.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles S.S.E. from Serinagur; lat. 29° 58′ N., lon 78° 54′ E.

Chouraghur.—A town and strong fortress in the province of Gundwana, situated at the northern extremity of the Mahadeo hills, about fifty miles E. by S. from Hosseinabad on the Nerbudda. In May 1818 this place was captured by General Watson's detachment; and in November the Gonds, who appear during the interval to have grown into favour with themselves, made a very spirited attempt to retake it, but were repulsed with much slaughter. Lat. 22° 48′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E. This fortress was acquired by the Nagpoor state from the Poona Maharattas in 1799, being necessary for the secure occupation of the valley of the Nerbudda.

Chowal.—A district in the north-eastern quarter of the Gujerat province, situated between the 23d and 24th degrees of north latitude. The chief towns are Massawna, Beejapoor, and Maunsa; and the principal river, the Roopeyne.

Christians.—See South Canara.

Chowera.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, thirty miles E. by N. from Wankaneer. This place is situated on an eminence, and surrounded by a high stone wall with square towers in a ruinous state.

Chowka.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, which gives its name to a beautiful pass through the hills, ten miles N.E. of the city of Aurungabad.

Chuasi Fort.—A fort or peak in the province of Lahore, division of Sukhait, situated on the right bank of the Sutuleje, 10,744 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 25′ N., lon. 78° 29′ E.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Chuch.—A small district or valley in the north-west corner of the Lahore province, about the 34th degree of north latitude, bounded on the north and west by the Indus, and on the south by the Ghursheen river. This territory, and adjacent district named Hazarch, contains many fertile plains, inhabited by Hindoos that have been converted to the Mahomedan religion, and named Goojers. Amongst these also are many turbulent Afghans of various tribes, who are in fact the masters of the country. Within the geographical limits of Chuch, but beyond those of the valley, are the towns of Attock and Hussoo. Near Attock the plain of Chuch is well cultivated, principally with wheat; further east the country is of a wavy surface, generally dry and barren, and cut up by deep ravines; but approaching the eastern border is the beautiful valley of Hussein Abdaul. —(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Chuckowal.—A town in the province of Lahore, sixty-eight miles E. from the Indus; lat. 33° 4′ N., lon. 72° 34′ E.

Chuka.—A castle in Bootan, near to which is a chain bridge of a remarkable construction stretched over the river Tehuntchieu; lat. 27° 16′ N., lon. 89° 34′ E., forty miles south from Tassisudon. The fortress of Chuka is a large building placed on elevated ground, with only one entrance to the interior, built of stone with walls of a prodigious thickness. The natives have no records to certify when the chain bridge was erected, but are generally of opinion that it was fabricated by the devata, or

demigod, Tehupchal. The adjacent country abounds with strawberries, which are seldom eaten by the genuine Bootanners. Here are also many well-known British plants, such as docks, nettles, primroses, and dog-roses—a refreshing sight to the eye of a parched European.—(*Turner, &c.*)

CHUMBUL RIVER.—This river has its source in the province of Malwa, in the hills about four miles S.E. of Haussulpoor, and two miles W. of Burgoonda, whence it flows almost due north, passing many villages to near Peplowda, where it receives the Chumlee, and subsequently the Wangeyree river, near Omernee. Proceeding thence, in almost the same direction, it approaches Tall, where it takes a sweep N.W. round the fortress of Nagutwarra, from whence it runs with a winding course, receiving many contributory streams, until it falls into the Jumna about twenty-five miles below Etaweh. The length of its course, including windings, may be estimated at 500 miles. The nominal source of the Chumbul is in part of the Vindhya range, nine miles S.W. of the cantonment at Mhow, but this portion is dry in the hot season. The current is in most parts gentle, its bed rocky, and its course through Malwa much obstructed by shallows; but after entering Harrowtee by an opening in the Mokundra range it becomes a fine and deep stream. This river is often named the Sumbul, and is supposed by Major Rennell to be the Sambus of Arrian; Major Wilford derives the name from charmanawati, abounding in hides.—(*Malcolm, Hunter, Rennell, &c.*)

CHUMPANEER (*Chapanir*).—A large subdivision of the Gujerat province situated between the twenty-second and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and bounded towards the east by the Malwa province. It has two large boundary rivers, the Nerbudda and Mahy, and is traversed by many lesser streams. The greater portion is now subordinate either to the British government or the Guicowar; but it also contains several petty native chiefs, such as the Rajas of Soonth and Lunawara.

CHUMPANEER (*or Powanghur*).—The ancient capital of the above district, situated sixty miles N.E. from Broach; lat. 22° 31′ N., lon. 73° 41′ E. Chumpaneer, or Pavanghudd, is a large mountain, or rather rock, rising out of the bosom of Gujerat, one of the most level provinces of Hindostan. It stands about twenty-two miles N.E. from Baroda in a straight line, and, except a few hillocks, in comparison it stands alone, frowning over the south-eastern quarter of the district. The height, by a rough estimate, may be about 2,500 feet above the plain, and on some sides it appears nearly perpendicular. It is visible ten miles south of Baroda, and also from the minaret of the Jumma Musjid (mosque) at Ahmedabad, at least seventy miles distant. At the northern base are the remains of an ancient city, the ruins of which extend several miles on each side of the mountain, but are at present covered with jungle, the abode of tigers and wild Bheels. The mountain above is strengthened by two forts, the upper by the natives deemed impregnable.

Chumpaneer is supposed to have been the capital of a Hindoo principality long before the Mahomedan invasion, and was taken in 889 of the Hijera by Mahmood, the seventh king of western Gujerat, after a siege, or rather blockade (the natives say) of twelve years. It was subsequently captured by the emperor Hoomayun in A.D. 1534, and is described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, as even then surrounded by extensive Hindoo and Mahomedan ruins. On the decline of the Mogul empire Chumpaneer fell into the hands of the Maharattas, and in 1803, along with the adjacent territory, was possessed by Sindia; from whom, notwithstanding its formidable position, it was easily captured in 1803, and with the same facility restored in 1804. In 1812

the town or pettah contained only 400 houses, of which, such has been its decay, not more than half were inhabited. The Bheels, who in this tract appear to be the aborigines of the country, speak remarkably pure Gujerattee, having had but little intermixture with strangers. In native estimation the dignity of this fortress is very great, and so strongly impressed are the adjacent petty states of Lunawara and Sooth, of having been from all antiquity appendages to that towering castle, containing the goddess Cali, their tutelary deity, that they never consider themselves wholly independent of the authority that has actual possession of the venerable hill.—(*Miles, 5th Reg., &c.*)

Chumparun.—See Sarun

Chumpawut (*Champavati*)—A town in Northen Hindostan, the ancient capital of the Kumaon province, 107 travelling miles N by E from Bareily, and fifty from Almora; lat. 29° 20′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E From its vicinity to the Cali river, it is sometimes named Kari Kumaon. Chumpawut stands in a considerable valley of irregular surface, tolerably well cultivated in terraced fields, after the fashion of the hills. In 1819 the town consisted of about sixty stone houses, with a wooden frame in front, as at Almora. To the east is a singular groupe of diminutive Hindoo temples, but of very curious and elaborate workmanship, and abounding with minute sculpture, now much mutilated, done (as is said) by the Rohillahs when they invaded Kumaon. There is also a small modern temple, dedicated to Naganath (the lord of serpents), who appears by proxy in the form of a small mound of clay, and near to this symbol are the ruins of the ancient fort of Chumpawut. At this place the natives shew the remains of a mulberry tree of remarkable age and dimensions (thirty-three feet in circumference), with the existence of which they considered the fate of the province to be involved, in proof of which, they allege that part of it fell to the ground in the invasion of Kumaon by the British.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Chunar (*or Chandalghur*).—A town and fortress in the province of Allahabad, district of Juanpoor, situated on the south side of the Ganges, about seventeen miles in a straight direction S.W. from Benares; lat. 25′ 9′ N., lon. 82° 54′ E. The fortress is situated on a fine stone rock, several hundred feet high, that rises abruptly from the plain, and advances some distance into the river. The principal defences consist of a single stone parapet with towers, built along the margin of the precipitous ridge. The town stands to the eastward of the fort, contains many stone houses, and is distant from the European bungalows. In 1819 a commodious building was erected for the reception of Trimbuckjee Dainglia, the notorious menial and minister of the ex-Peshwa, and in the neighbourhood are several handsome Mahomedan tombs

In A.D 1530 Chunar was the residence of Shere Khan the Afghan, who expelled the emperor Hoomayun from Hindostan; and in 1575 it was taken by the Moguls, after a siege of six months. In 1763, this fortress, after repulsing a night attack of the British troops, was some time afterwards delivered up without a siege, and has ever since remained under the Bengal government. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 574 miles, by Beerbhoom 469 miles.—(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Gholaum Hossein, Ferishta, &c.*)

Chundail (*Chandala*)—A small district in the province of Gundwana, bounded on the north by the Sone river, and formerly separated from the British districts by the river Boker. The natives of this province call themselves Chundails, and are a (*soi-disant*) tribe of Rajpoots, the usual residence of whose chief, in A.D. 1794, was at Rajeghur, twenty miles west of Beejeeghur. This country became tributary to the Benares Rajas in the days of Bulwunt Singh, who first conquered it; for it had

not ever been thoroughly subdued by the Moguls, although by Aurengzebe formally annexed to the soubah of Allahabad. This territory is very thinly inhabited, and in many parts a complete wilderness. The road south from the British dominions is over a number of small hills, with scarcely the vestige of a habitation, there being few permanent villages, the inhabitants making a practice of changing their habitations very frequently. The natives of these hills are named Karwar, and are a very savage tribe, divided into many sects, acknowledging subordination to a vassal of the Burder rajas, who reside at Buddery.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

CHUNDERBUDUNI.—A mountain in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles N.W. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 19′ N., lon. 78° 37′ E. Its summit is 7,661 feet above the level of the sea.

CHUNDERPOOR.—A subdivision of the Sumbhulpoor district in the province of Gundwana, conquered by the Nagpoor Maharattas about A.D. 1750, but now subject to the British government. In 1818 it was in a sad state of desolation, and overrun by immense herds of wild buffaloes.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

CHUNDLAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-eight miles S.S.W. from Banda, lat. 25° 4′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E.

CHUNDLYE.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, about nineteen miles south from the city of Jeypoor.—(*MS, &c.*)

CHUNDOWSY.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, which before the cession of Rohilcund to the British government was the grand salt mart of the province; lat. 28° 26′ N., lon. 78° 38′ E., forty miles W. by N. from Bareily.

CHUPPARAH.—A considerable town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the Wynegunga river, ninety-five miles N.N.E. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 22° 24′ N., lon. 79° 58′ E. It was ceded along with the district to the British government in 1818.

CHUPPRA.—A town and pergunnah belonging to Meer Khan in the province of Malwa, thirty-four miles N. by W. from Raghooghur; lat. 24° 39′ N., lon. 49° E.

CHUPRAH.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, of which it is the capital, situated on the north side of the Ganges, thirty-two miles W.N.W. from Patna; lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 84° 46′ E. This is a town of little breadth, but extending along the Ganges for nearly a mile. In 1817 it contained 8,700 families, which at five persons to a family would give 43,500 inhabitants. In the vicinity of Chuprah the Kharwa tribe are numerous. They occasionally fish and carry the palanquin, but are mostly agricultural. They migrate from hence to Calcutta, Patna, and Benares, and at the fort are distinguished by the name of Patna bearers, while in their own country they are mostly labourers of the soil. Although domesticated here, their original country is said to be in the neighbourhood of an old fortress called Khayra, in Chuta Nagpoor. According to strict Hindoo notions they are an impure tribe, although they have abandoned many customs to which they are addicted in their original country.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CHUR (*or Choor*) MOUNTAIN.—A remarkable peak in Northern Hindostan, division of Sirmore; lat. 30° 52′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E., elevation above the sea 12,149 feet. This is the loftiest mountain south of the great Himalaya, between the Sutuleje and Jumna, where it may be seen towering above the others. Its elevation is such, that it turns and separates the waters of Hindostan. Those that rise on the southern and eastern face are sent to join the Pabur and the Girree, the Tonse and the Jumna, and ultimately find their way to the Bay of Bengal; while those

that flow from the northern and western exposures, proceed to the Sutuleje and Indus, and combined with the last disembogue into the Arabian ocean.—(*Jas. Fraser, Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

CHURAN.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the Issamutty river, thirteen miles S.W. from the city of Dacca. Near this place there is an extensive tract of inundated country named the Churan Jeel.

CHUT.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-one miles east from Sirhind; lat. 30° 37′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E.

CHUTA NAGPOOR (*Little Nagpoor.*)—A large zemindary in the province of Bahar, situated at the southern extremity, and now incorporated with the district of Ramghur. It is bounded on the south-east and west by the ancient Hindoo province of Gundwana, and never was completely subjugated by the Mahomedans, although its rajas were reduced to the condition of tributaries by the Mogul viceroys of Bengal; yet they were little interfered with so long as their contributions were punctually paid.

Chuta Nagpoor is an extensive hilly tract (not mountainous), and much covered with forest; formerly fostered with great care by its chiefs, as a protection against invasion from without; indeed, the nature of the country is such as would render it extremely difficult either to penetrate or subdue, on account of the unhealthy jungles, so deleterious to troops not born on the spot. The chains of mountains run east and west; some are continuous for many miles, others interrupted, and the highest does not exceed 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, if so much. Part of Chuta Nagpoor and of the Ramghur district may be considered as table-land, but the surface undulates, is intersected by deep ravines, and partially covered with jungle, thinly interspersed with villages. These tracts are quite inland, being distant from 300 to 400 miles from the sea. The plains in some parts are very extensive, expanding for many miles without interruption. Those of Chuta Nagpoor are cultivated with different kinds of pulse, wheat, barley, cotton, a little sugar-cane, and some esculents. The soil in many parts is of a reddish colour, and extremely productive, more especially of cotton, and requires little ploughing or preparation. The acclivities consist principally of loam, and having many springs, throughout the year produce rice in abundance. Like other hilly tracts, this zemindary contains the sources of many streams; but they do not attain any considerable size until they quit its limits. Beneath the surface iron ore is found in abundance, but this useful metal can be imported from Europe on such moderate terms, that its collection and fusion on the spot present no encouragement to the speculator. The impervious fastnesses here conceal many strange tribes, who, even at this late era of Hindoo predominance, have not yet become converts to the Brahminical doctrines, and are consequently classed by the priests among the abominable. The Khetaurs, the Keevi, and the Dhanggar still compose the bulk of the inhabitants, and some of these are said not to speak the Hindi language. The Dhanggar are still impure unconverted mlechchas or barbarians. This territory contains a large proportion of the Cole and Lurka Cole tribes, more especially in the pergunnah of Tamar, and the tracts situated near the hills that separate it from Singboom, where there were disturbances in 1822. The Tamar female Coles possess some wearing apparel, but those of the Lurka Coles go entirely naked except a small piece of cloth. They appear to be Hindoos, but of the most degraded castes. The principal towns, or rather villages, are Burwa and Maharajegunge, but the country in general is very thinly populated.

For many years subsequent to the

British conquest, the Chuta Nagpoor rajas, of the Sahi family, assumed and exercised independent powers, and Raja Deonauth Sahi appears rather to have been recognized as a tributary, than a zemindar holding lands liable to revenue. Prior to 1807 no decree of the Ramghur court of justice, disagreeable to the raja or his dewan, had any effect in his territories except backed by a detachment; but in that year Raja Govindnauth Sahi Deo consented to the introduction of a systematic police, but it was perfectly evident, during the negociation, that he had no real intention of carrying them into effect. The late and present Nagpoor chiefs have adhered with singular perseverance to the resolution of holding no personal intercourse of communication with the British functionaries, preserving towards them, and all other Europeans, the most rigid invisibility. The consequence of this has been that the lives and properties have been at the mercy of an unprincipled dewan, who, without any personal interest in the district, considered it his duty to frustrate every measure, civil or military, of the British government.

In this manner the raja, or rather his ministers, continuing to manifest the utmost contumacy and systematic resistance to all the orders of government, a small force was at last, in 1809, marched into his country, under the command of Major E Roughsedge: on the approach of which the raja quitted his capital, Maharajegunge, with much perturbation, and fled into the neighbouring jungles, where he endeavoured to preserve his hereditary invisibility, and resisted all persuasions to return. Letters being despatched to him, he withdrew further into the jungles of Singboom, where he remained so inaccessible, that a private messenger was detained twenty miles distance from his actual residence six days, and then sent with (probably) a fabricated reply; for it never could be ascertained that the letters ever actually reached his hands. By this expedition the country was brought under proper subordination; but, of course, with a great diminution of the raja's authority, and the total annihilation of his dewan's. Indeed, prior to this event, the Chuta Nagpoor zemindary had been held on easier terms than any other portion of the British dominions in Hindostan. In 1805 it was calculated that the raja realized from his tenants 160,000 rupees per annum, while the land-tax he paid was only 13,000 rupees per annum. With the surplus he usually supported an armed rabble of 2,000 men; and the population, if well-disposed, might furnish 20,000 more.

This subdivision of the Bahar province is designated by the term *chuta*, to distinguish it from the other Nagpoor, possessed by the Bhoonslah Maharatta family; and the name (Nagpoor) indicates, that in the opinion of the natives the territory contains diamonds —(*Roughsedge, Colvin, Sealey, Col. Broughton, &c*)

Chynpoor Baree —A considerable town in the province of Malwa, district of Raisseen, belonging to the Bopaul nabob, situated in a mountainous country, forty-eight miles E. by S from the city of Bopaul; lat. 23° 2′ N., lon. 78° 15′ E.

Cicacole (*Chicacula*).—The largest of the northern Circars, now comprehended in the modern district of Ganjam, of which it forms the largest portion It formerly contained about 1,600 miles of superficial measure, exclusive of that portion of country situated along the great ridge of boundary mountains to the west. The climate of the northern circars (of which Cicacole occupies so large a space), with a general conformity to that of Hindostan, has, from local position and other circumstances, some peculiarities in each of the three seasons. The periodical rains usually set in about the middle of June, with a westerly wind, in moderate showers, until the end of August, which month concludes the small grain harvest; from this time the rain continues in great abundance until the

beginning of November, when it generally breaks up with violence, and is succeeded by a north-easterly wind. The middle of this latter and pleasant season finishes the harvest for rice and bajary, which are the great production of the country north of the Godavery. The close of the vernal equinox terminates the third harvest, the grand one for maize, as well as for all the different species of grain and pease south of that river; then begins the hot season, which is always extremely moderate towards the northern extremity, near Ganjam, because of the diurnal sea-breezes, and the position of the neighbouring hills from south to west, contrary to the ordinary direction of the wind at Masulipatam.

The southern division of Cicacole, with a better soil than the rest, is watered by four rivers, which have their respective outlets at Vizagapatam, Bimlapatam, Cicacole, and Calingapatam, besides many lesser streams, during the rains. Taken altogether, Cicacole has few extensive plains, and the hills increase in frequency and magnitude as they approach the range of mountains bounding this and Rajamundry to the north-west. The hills and narrower bottoms that separate them, were formerly suffered to get overrun with jungle by the native proprietors, as the best protection for the opener vallies allotted to cultivation. During the Carnatic wars, and indeed until lately, that province was supplied with large quantities of rice from this circar; but since the long duration of permanent tranquillity, for the last forty years, the necessity for importing grain to Madras has greatly diminished. The public revenue here has very generally, and for a long period of time, been paid through intermediate renters, a great difficulty having always been experienced in prevailing on the inhabitants to rent their villages, even for a grain rent.

Cicacole was ceded to the French in 1753 by Salabut Jung, the reigning soubahdar of the Deccan, at which time its limits extended from the Godavery to Juggernauth. At the above date the French possessed territories greater, both in value and extent, than had ever been previously possessed by Europeans in Hindostan, not excepting the Portuguese when at the height of their prosperity. It was acquired along with the dewanny of Bengal, in 1765, during the government of Lord Clive.—(*J. Grant, Orme, White, &c.*)

CICACOLE.—The ancient capital of the preceding circar, by the Mahomedans named Maphus Bunder; lat. 18° 15′ N., lon. 84° E., fifty-five miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam. This is a large town, situated on the high northern bank of the Cicacole river, which rises in the Gundwana mountains, and falls into the sea a few miles below the town, where it is about one-third of a mile broad. Cicacole contains several considerable bazars, but is irregularly built, being a mixture of all sorts of houses and huts. In the centre is a neat range of barracks, and vestiges of a mud rampart and of some European dwelling houses are still to be seen; but in 1820 the Ganjum veteran battalion was the only garrison. In 1815, in consequence of a contagious fever that raged at Ganjam, the courts of justice and revenue were for a time transferred to Cicacole; but latterly Burhampoor appears to have been selected for the head-quarters of the district. Mosques and other small Mahomedan buildings are numerous here. The principal mosque, which is of considerable sanctity, erected in the year of the Hejira 1051, by Sheikh Mahomed Khan, is a stone building, of respectable appearance, with minars, gardens, and fountains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

THE NORTHERN CIRCARS.

A large province extending along the west side of the bay of Bengal, from the fifteenth to the twentieth degrees of north latitude. The sea bounds it to the east, along a coast of 470 miles, from Moutapilly, its southern extremity, to Malond, on

the borders of the Chilka lake. It is divided from the Hyderabad provinces by a range of small detached hills, extending to the banks of the Godavery; and to the north of that river separated from Gundwana by a continued range of mountains, almost impassable for a horse or wheeled carriage, to the northwestern extremity of the circars at Goomsur. From hence the chain of hills curves to the eastward, and with the Chilka lake forms a barrier of fifty miles to the north, except a tongue of land between that lake and the sea. Towards the south the small river Gundegama, which empties itself at Moutapilly, separates the circars from Ongole and the Carnatic below the ghauts. The area or superficial contents, as originally acquired by the British government, may be estimated at 17,000 geographical square miles, of which (in 1784) one-fifth was estimated to be in cultivation or fallow, two-fifths in pasture, and the remainder woods, water, towns, barren hills, or a sandy waste, three miles in breadth, bordering the whole extent of the sea-coast.

The grand divisions of the Northern Circars are naturally five, principally marked by rivers running from the hills on the western frontier. These divisions are Guntoor or Mortizabad; Condapilly or Mustaphabad, Ellore, Rajamundry, and Cicacole, anciently named Calinga. The sea-coast of this province is not equally exposed to the violence of the north-east monsoon as that of the more southern shores on the same side of the bay. From Point Calymere to Ongole the Carnatic sea-coast lies nearly in a straight line from north to south, and is therefore in the direct course of the periodical storms which sweep across the bay of Bengal; but above Ongole the winding of the coast is from south-west to north-east, so that the land here lies almost parallel with the monsoon. Thus it happens that while the country between Madras and the ghauts is deluged by torrents of rain, the Circars feel little more of its influence than they derive from the occasional clouds blown in by the daily sea-breeze. Proceeding further north, the rains of this quarter of the year become milder, until in Cuttack the season approximates to that of Bengal; the N.E. monsoon towards the bay becoming almost a land wind, bringing cold weather from the northern mountains, but accompanied with very little moisture.

The general climate of this region, to the north of the Godavery, has been described under the article Cicacole: to the south of that river, for the first two months strong southerly gales prevail along shore, which together with the sea breezes moderate the heat; but the baleful influence of the former, acquired by blowing over the salt marshes on the sea-coast, is injurious to animal life, and destructive to vegetation. During the succeeding month until the rains, the wind coming from the west over a parched loose soil of great extent, uninterrupted by any continued chain of hills, and along the broad, sandy, and almost dry bed of the Krishna, becomes so intolerably hot near the mouth of that river as to raise the thermometer, sometimes for an entire week, to 110°, and even in other parts it has been known to stand at 112° at eight o'clock in the evening, and at midnight to as high as 106°. Neither wood nor glass is capable of bearing this heat for any length of time; the latter, such as shades and globe lanterns, crack and fly to pieces; the former warps and shrinks so much that the nails fall out of the doors and tables. Another peculiarity of the climate is the noxious state of the air in all the hilly regions throughout the different seasons of vegetation, which occasions the distemper called the hill fever. This has been attributed to many causes, but it is probably owing to the grossness of an atmosphere fat with fogs, and surcharged with the exhalations of a luxuriant soil pent up in vallies, having the free circula-

tion impeded by the surrounding jungles and forests.

From Coringa to Ganjam the coast, as viewed from the sea, appears mountainous, and from Coringa southwards low, flat, and sandy. The same ground seldom yields more than one crop of grain annually, but there being plenty of water, it is generally a heavy one. There are many small rivers running towards the sea, divided artificially into canals, and afterwards conducted into tanks and reservoirs. The principal quadrupeds are sheep and the larger species of horned cattle; and the neighbouring sea, with its numerous islets, abounds with every species of Indian fish. The Circars are exceedingly productive of grain, and formerly, during the north-easterly monsoon, were the granary of Madras, in like manner as Tanjore was reckoned on during the south-west monsoon. Fruits, roots, and green esculents are scarce, and raised with difficulty south of the Godavery, and even to the north of that river, owing it is supposed to the influence of the sea air. Sugar and cotton are produced, and of the latter a great deal is brought from the interior; bay salt and tobacco (the latter excellent) are exported. The forests of Rajamundry, from the commencement of the hills along the banks of the Godavery to Poloonsha, yield abundance of large teak trees.

Plain longcloth, which forms the groundwork of the best printed calicoes in Europe, is wrought in the island of Nagore, and palempores at Masulipatam; coarser cloths to the north and south of the Godavery. The muslins of Cicacole, the woollen carpets of Ellore, and the silks of Burhampoor, are rather objects of curiosity than considerable in quantity. The raw silk is all imported. Ships of 500 tons have been constructed at Coringa and Narsopoor, the two principal mouths of the Godavery, and above 50,000 tons of small native craft are employed in the coasting trade, principally with Madras. The exports to Europe are chiefly fine cotton fabrics. The articles transported inland by the itinerant traders are salt, [illegible]-goods, copper, and raw silk from Bengal; the returns cotton and wheat. A large proportion of the East-India Company's investment of piece goods is provided in these Circars. The female population generally prepare the thread, sell the produce of their week's work to the weaver, and purchase a new stock of cotton for the next week. The females also of decayed families, who from the secluded tenour of their lives have little choice of employment, derive from this source a support for their feeble existence, which it is to be hoped no machinery will ever endanger. A considerable quantity of the cotton thus used is raised on the spot, the rest brought from the Central Deccan in exchange for salt.

The native inhabitants of the five Northern Circars, exclusive of a few Mahomedans dispersed through the different towns, are wholly Hindoos, and, according to returns made to the Madras government in 1822, were estimated at 2,995,481 persons. They are composed of two nations, the Telinga and the Ooria, Oria, or Orissa, formerly separated by the Godavery, but greatly intermixed since their union. They speak and write different dialects, and have rites, customs, and characteristical traits, perfectly distinguishable from each other. The four great castes or subdivisions are common to both, but the Oorias are supposed to deviate less from original institutions than the others. The Brahmins, as elsewhere, enjoy undisputed pre-eminence. It is probable that many of the poligars and zemindars were descendants of ancient Hindoo chiefs and public officers who had usurped lands. The Velmas were an aboriginal race of Telingana origin. The Rachewars appear to have been descendants of a pure Rajpoot colony from Upper Hindostan. The Worias were the offspring of the Gujaputty dynasty of Orissa kings; but the whole of the above tribes affect the Rajpoot manners, and pretend to be of the war-

tial caste. The remainder are husbandmen, cowherds, weavers, together with the artificers hereafter enumerated, and maintained by the greater villages.

Geographically considered, a village here is a tract of country comprising some hundred or some thousand acres of arable or waste land; politically viewed it resembles a township or corporation. Its proper establishment of officers and servants consists of the following descriptions:

1. The potail or head inhabitant, who has a general superintendence of the affairs of the village, settles disputes, attends to the police, and collects the revenue within his village

2. The tallia and totie: the duty of the first consists in gaining information of crimes and offences, and in escorting and protecting travellers from one village to another; the duties of the last appear confined immediately to the village, where he guards the crops and assists in measuring them.

3. The boundary man, who preserves the limits of the village, or gives evidence respecting them in matters of dispute.

4. The curnum, or village accountant.

5. The superintendent of the tanks and water-courses, who distributes the water therefrom for the purposes of agriculture.

6. The Brahmin, who performs the village worship.

7. The schoolmaster, who is seen teaching the children to read and write on the sand.

8. The calendar Brahmin, or astrologer, who proclaims the lucky and unpropitious periods for sowing and reaping.

9. The smith and carpenter, who manufacture the implements of agriculture, and build the dwelling of the cultivator.

10 The potman or potter; the washerman; the barber; the cowkeeper, who tends the cattle; the doctor; the dancing-girl, who attends at rejoicings; the musician; and the poet.

These officers and servants generally constitute the establishment of a Hindoo village. In addition to the portion of land appropriated to the pagoda establishment, to the local officers of the government, and to the village servants, they were each entitled to certain small shares or perquisites from the crops of the villagers. Under this simple form of government the inhabitants lived from time immemorial The boundaries of villages have been but seldom altered; and although villages have been often injured, and even desolated by war, famine, and disease, the same name, the same limits, and even the same families have continued for ages. The inhabitants give themselves no trouble about the breaking up and division of kingdoms; while the village remains entire, they care not to what sovereign it is transferred, or to what dynasty it devolves, its internal economy remaining the same.

The towns and villages in this province consist of mud huts and houses; yet the peasantry are not, on the whole, incommodiously lodged The temples, tanks, and other great works are few and insignificant, when compared with those of the south; and the roads, with the exception of Bengal, where they are not required, probably the worst in India. Wheeled carriages are consequently scarcely used for the commerce of the interior, and the communication from place to place at certain seasons is extremely difficult, even for loaded cattle, especially over the black soil of Guntoor and the swamps of the northern districts. The numerous streams, rivers, and creeks that intersect the country (as in Malabar) from east to west, without bridges or proper ferry boats, are a great impediment to inland traffic, and a never-ceasing annoyance to the traveller, for whose accommodation a palmyra catamaran is the usual expedient. The coss here is about equal to two miles English.

The five northern Circars, when acquired by the East-India Company,

consisted of zemindary and havelly lands. The first are situated in the hill country of the western frontier, and also in the plains between these hills and the sea. The hill zemindars, secure in their woody and unwholesome heights, and encouraged by the hope of an eventual asylum in the dominions of the Nizam and Nagpoor raja, have often furnished examples of successful depredation and unpunished revolt. When the province devolved to the British they were for the most part in a very irregular state of subjection to the Nizam, and not only the forms, but the remembrance of civil authority, seemed to have been lost. With respect to the havelly lands, which compose a large proportion of these Circars, they consisted of the demesne or household lands of the sovereign, tracts near to towns resumed by the Mahomedans, and appropriated for the peculiar support of their numerous garrisons and establishments. Long before our acquisition of the country, private property in land, if it ever prevailed in these districts, had for many years ceased to exist. If the ryots ever possessed power to sell their lands, it must have been at a very remote period, for not only has this power remained unclaimed by any ryot from Nellore to Ganjam, but there has not been discovered a single deed of the sale of landed property by individuals, in any of the provinces throughout Telingana.

In A.D. 1541 the Mussulmauns, under Mahomed Khan Leshkeree, of the Bhamenee empire of Beeder, broke into the Northern Circars, and conquered Condapilly. Nine years afterwards they subdued all the Guntoor and Masulipatam districts; but their reduction, in a European sense, appears to have been little more than nominal, as they were again conquered from the Hindoo princes of Orissa in 1571, during the reign of Ibrahim Cuttub Shah, of Hyderabad or Golconda. In 1787 these provinces, along with the kingdom of Hyderabad, fell under the dominion of Aurengzebe: but in 1724 were again severed from the Mogul empire by Nizam ul Mulk, who immediately took actual and real possession, collected the revenue, and fixed a civil and military establishment. He was succeeded by his third son, Salabut Jung, who being greatly indebted for his elevation to the intrigues and military support of the French East-India Company, rewarded their services in 1752 by a grant of the district of Condavir or Guntoor, and soon after ceded the other Circars.

The capture of Masulipatam in 1759, by the British army under Colonel Forde, having deprived the French of all real power, these territories reverted to the Nizam, with the exception of the acknowledged dependencies of the town and fortress of Masulipatam, which were retained by the English East-India Company. Deprived of French succour, Salabut Jung was soon superseded in his authority by his brother Nizam Ali. In 1765 Lord Clive obtained from the Mogul (Shah Allum) a grant of four of the Northern Circars, namely, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly, which in the following year was confirmed by a treaty with the Nizam. The remaining circar of Guntoor was at that time possessed by Bazalet Jung, the Nizam's brother, who held it in jaghire. It was contingently stipulated for in the treaty with the Nizam, subject to the life of Bazalet Jung, who died in 1782: but it did not actually come under British jurisdiction until 1788. From this period until 1823 a peshcush was paid annually to the Nizam on account of the Northern Circars, amounting to 6,30,630 rupees; but in that year the whole was finally redeemed by the payment to the Nizam of £1,200,000 sterling.

The local administration of the Northern Circars was continued under the management of the natives until 1769, when provincial chiefs and councils were appointed, and this mode of government continued until 1794. During this period the power of the zemindars was very great, and

in 1777 it was calculated that the number of armed men maintained by them amounted to 41,000. In 1794 a change in the internal government of this province took place, which was followed by the punishment of the great zemindar of Vizianagrum, and the restoration of such zemindars as had been unjustly deprived of their lands by that family. The progress, however, of improvement continued to be very slow compared with other districts similarly situated, although considerable amelioration has taken place in the fiscal department. The system of a permanent assessment was introduced and established in the Northern Circars during the years 1802 and 1804, when the province was divided into five regular jurisdictions or collectorates, *viz* Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Rajamundry, Masulipatam, and Guntoor; but recently these have been incorporated with each other, and reduced to two districts, of large dimensions and uncertain form.—(*Jas. Grant, 5th Report, Fullarton, White, Rennell, R. Grant, &c*)

CLAPP'S ISLES (*or Cocoa Isles*).—A number of very small islands lying off the south-western extremity of Java; lat. 7° 5′ S., lon 105° 25′ N These islets are uninhabited, and only occasionally resorted to by the Malays for the sake of the edible bird's-nests found among them.

CLOORGOWAN.—A town in the province of Delhi, situated on the confines of the Hurrianna district and Bhatty country; lat. 28° 9′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E., twenty miles N.W. from Hissar.

COCHIN (*Cach'hi, a morass*).—A small principality on the Malabar coast, intersected by the tenth degree of north latitude, having the Malabar province on the north, Travancore on the south, Dindigul on the east, and the sea on the west. A section of this territory, equal to about 745 square miles, is attached to the district of Malabar, and subject to the British code of Indian laws; but the residue is under the independent jurisdiction of the raja. The whole area probably exceeds 2,500 square miles.

In the northern parts of this country, about Pargunuru and Shilicary, the rice grounds are narrow valleys, well watered by perennial streams, which enable the cultivators to raise two crops annually. Their houses are buried in groves of palms, mangoes, jacks, and plantains, that skirt the bottom of the little hills. Above are woods of forest trees, which, although not so stately as those of Chittagong, are very fine, and free from rattans and climbers. The teak and viti (a black wood) abound in these forests, but most of the large trees have been cut, and no care has been taken to encourage their reproduction, or to check the growth of useless timber. Towards Cacadu the hills are lower, and covered with grass instead of trees, but scarcely any portion of them is cultivated, although the soil appears good and the pasture excellent.

In the Cochin forests nearly the same sort of trees grow as in those of Malabar. The jackwood, in general demand for cabinet work, is small, and mostly used for boxes and house building. The crambo or iron wood is too heavy for common use and is seldom felled. The black wood is large and of fine dimensions, but rendered unmarketable by the practice of cutting it into short logs, for the convenience of having them more easily dragged to water carriage by elephants, during which process they are much bruised and splintered. The poon of Cochin is small and inferior to that of the Malabar province, as is also the Cochin teak, with respect to the essential oil, which is the grand preservative of iron from corrosion; indeed, the difference may easily be perceived by burning a piece of each. In the division of Chittoor there are extensive teak forests: but as the Chittoor river falls into the Paniany, it must be floated through the British territories to the sea-port of Paniany, in South Malabar. The free transit of this timber was of great impor-

tance to the raja's interest, yet permission to float the Chittoor timber to the sea was not conceded by the Bombay government (about 1814) without infinite discussion, and the point was only gained for the raja at last by the persevering exertions of Major John Munro, then resident at Cochin. Prior to the above era, the Cochin and Travancore teaks had been uniformly excluded from the Bombay dock-yard, which compelled the rajas to seek a market in Bengal, where the demand continues unabated.

In the Cochin principality are many Nazarene or Christian villages, inhabited by Christians of St. Thomas, which are in general well-built and cleanly. Jews are also numerous in the vicinity of the capital; but their head quarters are at Matacherry, about a mile distant, which is almost wholly tenanted by Israelites. The resident Jews (for the others are from all parts of Asia) are divided into two classes, the Jerusalem or white Jews, and the ancient or black Jews. The latter have a synagogue in the town of Cochin; but the great bulk of this tribe inhabit the interior, where it is extremely difficult to discriminate the black Jew from the Hindoo, their appearance is so similar. Their chief towns are Trittoor, Paroor, Chenotta, and Maleh, and by the white Jews they are considered an inferior race. By their neighbours the inhabitants of Cochin and Travancore are supposed to be great proficients in the black art, and to possess the power of destroying their enemies; but this attribute has never extended to their chiefs, whose conduct has always been such as to acquit them of all suspicion of being conjurors.

The Cochin Raja maintained his independence to a much later period than most of the other Hindoo princes. He was first compelled to pay tribute by Tippoo, which he still does to the British government. Mutta Tamburan, raja of Cochin, died of the small-pox in 1787, and was succeeded by his younger brother Verulam Tamburan. In 1791, by the assistance of the British government he was enabled to throw off the Mysore yoke, and transfer his allegiance to the British. Previous to the Travancore wars of 1809 the Cochin raja was tributary for that portion of his dominions which had been re-conquered for him from Tippoo, and he then paid altogether a subsidy of one lack of rupees; but this state always entertained a decided partiality to the French nation, and at length commenced an unprovoked and preposterous war against the British, which was extinguished with little trouble, and his tribute augmented to 2,76,037 rupees.

About the same date (1809) it was discovered that Paleat Achein, the dewan of Cochin, had been an active promoter of the commotions in this quarter of India, and had closely confederated with the refractory and ambitious dewan of Travancore. Nor was the Cochin raja himself altogether exempted from the suspicion of having countenanced the dewan's projects: but his guilt probably never proceeded so far, and the appearances were in all likelihood caused by his negligence and imbecility, which prevented his perceiving the criminal plots fabricated and conducted within the walls of his own palace. The Cochin dewan, on being taxed with his treacherous machinations, immediately confessed the whole, and acknowledged the clemency with which he had been treated. He was in consequence ordered to repair to Bombay, but in the course of his journey deviated to Trichoor; from whence, however, he was removed, and transported in safety to his ultimate destination.

To prevent the authority and resources of this chieftain being again directed against his allies, by the new treaty concluded in 1810, the surrender of his fortresses, arms, and military stores was stipulated, and also the reduction and reformation of his military establishment; but the good effects expected from this arrangement were frustrated by the continued dissentions between the raja and his new dewan, Koonjee Kishen Merawen, who was supposed to be

influenced by persons hostile to the British government. The dewan was in consequence removed from that high office, and the duties of it undertaken by the British resident until a fit successor could be found. This was, however, no easy task, for the country was divided into factions inveterate against each other; nor did any of the principal men possess sufficient character or abilities to qualify them for so important a task, in a principality full of foreign, discontented, and turbulent persons. Such a state of anarchy, added to the very bad description of the revenue servants, required strong and vigorous coercion, the powers necessary for which, if confided to a dewan, would have been, as they had been, grossly abused; nothing therefore remained but the temporary interposition of the representative of the British government. This arrangement was most earnestly solicited by the raja, who alleged that nothing else could restore subordination to his authority, economy in the expenditure, or tranquillity in the country. With respect to himself, his life he said had been passed in reading the shastras, and that it was now so fast verging to its termination, that he was unable to attend to business, while his heir had the opposite defect of being too young and inexperienced. Under these circumstances, he was of opinion that in committing his principality to the temporary care of the British government, he did an act of justice to his subjects, while he gratified his own wishes.

The resident in consequence stood forth as dewan, until the raja should be relieved from his embarrassments, and commenced by recommending that the Cochin tribute should be reduced from 2,76,037 to 2,40,000 rupees, the resources of the country being unequal to the liquidation of the larger sum, while the debt due to the British government for arrears of subsidy amounted to 5,22,437 rupees. Various reforms were also effected in the collection of the revenue and current expenses, of which last the religious establishments proved the heaviest and most troublesome to arrange. In 1814 considerable difficulty was experienced in realizing the revenues on account of the refractory conduct of the Christian inhabitants, who paid scarcely any revenue to the raja, and refused to recognize his authority. Prior to this date native Christian judges had been appointed to all the courts of justice in Cochin and Travancore, for the protection of the Christian natives against the hostility of the Nair public functionaries.—(*Col. John Munro, F. Buchanan, C. Buchanan, J. Fell, &c.*)

Cochin.—This city, from which the above principality originally derived its name, has long ceased to form any part of the Cochin dominions; lat. 9° 51° N., lon. 76° 17′ E. In A.D. 1503 Albuquerque obtained leave to erect a fortress at Cochin, which was the first possessed in India by the Portuguese. In 1663 it was taken by the Dutch, who converted the cathedral into a warehouse, and while they remained in possession, it was inhabited by Jew, Hindoo, and Mahomedan merchants, and carried on an extensive commerce. The intercourse with Arabia was very great, and Venetian zequins brought from Egypt were in common circulation, while many of the Arab ships made two voyages annually. A considerable traffic is still carried on with Surat, Bombay, the Malabar coast, and Canara, and also with Arabia, China, and the Eastern Isles. The chief exports are pepper, cardamoms, teakwood, sandal-wood, cocoa-nuts, coir, cordage, cassia, and fish maws. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, and the ports on the Arabian and Persian Gulfs are from hence supplied with timber for repairing their different craft. In 1821 two twenty-four gun ships for his Majesty's service were on the stocks.

The Roman Catholic bishop of Cochin now resides at Coilan. His diocese begins south of Cochin, extends towards Negapatam, includes the whole island of Ceylon, and compre-

hends altogether above 100 churches. Besides the Catholics there are at Cochin a considerable population of Protestants, the remains of the Dutch colonists. Beyond all the Europeans settled in India, the Dutch have the merit of having greatly promoted the dissemination of Christianity, wherever they gained a settlement. In their time clergymen presided over districts and made annual visitations; but all religious and scholastic institutions have been neglected since the transference of the country to the British. In 1807, the population of Jews in Cochin and its vicinity was as follows:—white Jews 223; black Jews 720; at places in the country 586: total 1,529 persons. On the rupture with the Dutch in 1795, Cochin was taken possession of, and was finally ceded to the British government by treaty in 1814.—(*C. Buchanan, Fra. Paolo, F. Buchanan, Bruce, Missionaries, &c.*)

COCHIN CHINA.

A kingdom situated in the south-eastern extremity of Asia, usually distinguished by the name of India beyond the Ganges, and extending along the sea of China, from the 9th to the 18th degree of north latitude. The empire of Cochin China, which acquired its existing form about the commencement of the present century, comprehends all Cochin China and Tunquin, and the largest portion of Cambodia, with the little state of Siampa. It extends from Cambodia Point in lat. 8° 30′ N., to the northern confines of Tunquin about lat. 23° N., and from 105° and 109° east. To the north it has the Chinese provinces of Canton, Quangsi, and Yunan; and to the west Laos and Siam. It is bounded in every other direction by the China sea and the gulfs of Tunquin and Siam. The dominions of Cochin China do not appear in any part to come in actual contact with those of Ava, although the Burmese have settlements on the upper course of the great river Cambodia, before it enters Tunquin, but the territory of Lantao, a subdivision of Laos, under Siam, intervenes.

The Cochin Chinese empire, as may be inferred from the above description, is of a very irregular shape. In 1824 it might be considered as distributed under three distinct governments, *viz.* that of Tunquin, subdivided into fifteen provinces; Cochin China proper, containing nine; and Cambodia, containing six provinces. Tunquin is the largest and most populous. Cochin China is but a narrow strip of land extending along the coast, hemmed in by mountains, seldom exceeding twenty leagues in breadth, and on the west generally bounded by the Laos territories.

The principal rivers are the Kankao, the Cambodia, the Saigon, the Tunquin or Donnai, and the Hue; but Cochin China itself has no river of any magnitude, for the Hue, though broad, is shallow, and of a very short course. Its estuary, however, forms a very fine harbour, accessible in the north-west monsoon to ships of 200 tons, but in the opposite monsoon it is shut. The long vallies through which these rivers flow are, comparatively, the most fertile and populous divisions of the empire; the remainder consists mostly of primitive mountains with narrow vallies intervening, and is proportionally thinly inhabited and unproductive. The promontory named Cape St. James (lat. 10° 16′ N., lon. 107° 45′ E.) is the commencement of a chain of mountains that extends along the sea-coast to the north as far as the gulf of Cochin, and being the first high land seen to the south, is an excellent land-mark for the entrance of the Donnai river, on the north side of which it is situated. Between Cape St. James and the Bay of Turon Cochin China possesses nine excellent harbours, accessible with every wind, and affording complete protection.

The commerce of Cochin China is regulated by the monsoons, the vessels being laid up until the return of the periodical favourable winds. The chief commercial ports are Saigon,

Faifoo, Hue, and Cachao. The last is the capital of Tunquin, and before the subjugation of that kingdom was a place of great trade. The Chinese craft and shipping that visit Cochin China annually has been estimated at 20,000 tons. Some of the native trading vessels are so constructed that the component parts may be separated from each other, and placed under cover, and some, even so large as eighty tons, have the timbers merely covered with matting or basket-work.

The low-lands in Cochin China produce rice, areca, betel-leaf, tobacco, coarse cinnamon, cotton, and sugar, the last of which may be considered the staple commodity of the country. Gold-dust, aguilla-wood, pepper, wax, honey, and ivory, are brought down from the mountains by the inhabitants. There are two species of rice, that which requires inundation, and mountain rice. The rainy season takes place in September, October, and November. The lands are capable of producing two crops of rice per annum, one reaped in April, the other in October. Fruits of various kinds, such as oranges, bananas, figs, pine-apples, guavas, and pomegranates, are abundantly produced in all parts of the country. In the forests of Cochin China are ebony, cedars, mimosas, walnuts, teak, iron-wood, poon, and most other trees that grow in India, besides sticklac and gamboge.

Sugar is the most valuable production, and is principally raised and manufactured in the central districts, by the industry of the natives, without the assistance of the Chinese, as is the case in Siam. In 1822 the whole exportation was estimated at 30,000 piculs, mostly sent to China. It is packed in matting sacks, containing rather more than 150 pounds each, which must be bored with a piercer to guard against fraud. Raw silk is also an article of considerable importance, both in Cochin China and Tunquin, and it has been conjectured that above 120,000 pounds are exported. In quality it is rather better than the Bengal silk, not of the Company's filature, but the shortness of the skein renders it unsuitable for British machinery. The true cinnamon is produced in the central mountains of Cochin China, and in 1822 about 266,000 pounds appeared exportable. It goes principally to China, where it is more highly valued than any other quality; but, on account of the slovenly manner in which it is prepared, it does not suit the European market. Another exclusive product of the central portion of the kingdom, where it is extensively cultivated, is tea—a coarse and cheap commodity, selling by retail for about three-halfpence per pound. The indigo plant grows about Saigon in great profusion, but its produce is brought to market in a liquid state, the natives not being acquainted with the granulating process; it consequently soon becomes unfit for use. Gold dust is found in their rivers, and their mines abound with ore of the purest sort. The commodities received from China in return for its exports, are silk, porcelain, medical drugs, a large supply of paper, principally for religious purposes, and some fine teas. From the Malay countries, pepper, cloves, nutmegs, sandal-wood, and tin, are received; and from Hindostan, opium and saltpetre. In 1822 the European imports consisted of broad-cloths, a few cotton goods, with fire-arms, and unwrought iron. The consumption of opium has been estimated at 150 chests per annum, two-thirds for Tunquin, and the other third for Cochin China and Cambodia. Until the establishment of Singapoor, the whole quantity was obtained indirectly from Canton. At the above date, the whole army, estimated at forty thousand men, was clothed in British woollens, consisting chiefly of strong coarse scarlet broad-cloth, a small quantity of yellow and green of the same quality, and a few serges and camblets. Some woollens of a finer quality are also purchased for the winter dresses of the higher orders. From Canton and Singapoor the

junks now import small assortments of fine and heavy cotton goods; but chintzes, and other coloured cotton goods, with the exception of handkerchiefs, are not esteemed by the Cochin Chinese, who prefer their own coarse cotton goods to those of Hindostan, which they fully equal in texture.

Notwithstanding their acquired skill in the casting of cannon and manufacture of ammunition, the Cochin-Chinese have never been able to supply themselves with small arms, which have at all times been imported from Europe; and notwithstanding the apparent cheapness of the native iron, it can still be afforded better and cheaper from Europe. In 1819 one French ship supplied the king with ten thousand stand of arms, yet they are always in demand, and yield a profit to the importer.

The foreign trade of this empire is almost exclusively with China, that to Siam being inconsiderable, and with European nations still smaller. In 1820 the latter, owing to the insane rapacity of the government, and the extortion of its officers, was reduced to the lowest stage of depression. Sugar, the staple article, was then very scarce; and the supply of raw silk was also extremely scanty. The Cochin Chinese, like the Siamese, are prohibited from going abroad, so that all their foreign trade is carried on by natives of the countries with which they have intercourse. Some, however, procure special licenses to go abroad, and in this manner a few visit China, and lately the European ports in the straits of Malacca, and more especially Singapoor. They carry on a considerable international traffic within their own limits, and from their hardiness, activity, and habits of obedience, appear singularly well suited to become expert mariners. The Chinese trade is chiefly carried on to Cachar in Tunquin, Saigon in Cambodia, and Taifo and Hue in Cochin China; they also trade with some minor ports, such as Pungtae, Yatrang, Fuyin, Samchao, Quinnyon, and Quangyi. The coasting trade is usually active, but the cargoes consist mostly of dried fish, biche de mer, pickled pork, and other articles of little value, a large portion of every vessel's tonnage being monopolized for the conveyance of the king's stores and troops. The domestic commerce is managed by females, who perform besides all the laborious drudgery, such as navigating the river craft, and cultivating the soil. The Chinese, who are dispersed over the country, participate in all the larger mercantile transactions, besides which they are the butchers, tailors, pedlars, confectioners, bankers, and money changers.

The Cochin Chinese in their form of government (as in their other institutions) imitate the Chinese; but they are far behind them in the administration of their law, as well as in mental capacity and industry. The only rank is official, divided into two great classes, the civil and the military. The forms are regular, and the manner of conducting business prompt and methodical, and in no other Asiatic country are European merchants admitted on more easy and liberal terms, all foreign traders having in 1818 been placed on a complete equality. Four of the principal seaports are open to European commerce, where all vessels pay a rated measurement duty, are exempted from all import duties or inspection of cargoes, and pay a small export duty on a few articles only. Unlike the Malay practice, neither the sovereign nor his officers are themselves traders, nor are there any royal monopolies or rights of preemption. All these salutary regulations, however, are rendered almost nugatory by the insatiable rapacity of the public functionaries, disciplined in extortion from the lowest peon up to the emperor.

France is the only country that has as yet availed herself of the new regulations in favour of European commerce, four ships from that country having visited Cochin China between 1818 and 1822. These imported fire-arms, iron, copper, wool-

lens, curiosities for the court, and all received full cargoes of sugar, besides considerable quantities of raw silk. In the course of time it is possible that an indirect trade with China may be conducted through this country, which lies in the direct trading route, and the Chinese often are much in want of return cargoes. By this channel an intercourse might be kept up with every part of China, from Hainan isle to the Yellow sea, whence teas and raw silks might be received, without the hampering exactions of Canton.

Until a few centuries after the Christian era, Cochin China formed a part of the Chinese empire, and consequently the appearance of the natives, many of the customs, the written language, the religious opinions and ceremonies, are still retained by them. The countenances of the peasants are lively and intelligent; and the women, who appear more numerous than the men, are actively employed in the works of husbandry. In some of the provinces of China women are condemned to the degrading and laborious task of dragging the plough; in Cochin China it is likewise their fate to be doomed to these occupations, that require the most persevering industry. In towns the women serve as agents and brokers to merchants from foreign countries, and act with remarkable fidelity. Both sexes are generally coarse-featured, and their colour nearly as deep as that of the Malays; and the universal practice of chewing betel with other ingredients, by reddening the lips and blackening the teeth, gives them a most unseemly appearance. Rice, made palatable with salt and pepper, furnishes their principal meals, animal food being but sparingly used. The small breed of cattle supply but little milk: but, like the Chinese, they seldom use this article, not even as food for their young children, nor is it customary to milk any animal. Both here as in many parts of China, fresh eggs are rejected, a preference equal to one-third in price being given to such as have become addled, and those that contain young in all stages are still more esteemed, and were always among the presents sent by the king to the British mission. This is one of the countries where the elephant is used as food, and rather considered a dainty. Buffaloe is preferred to other beef, but its consumption is almost confined exclusively to the Chinese population. During the famines caused by the civil wars that so long desolated this country, it is said human flesh was sold in the public markets of the capital.

The better class of Cochin Chinese wear, next the skin, vests and trowsers of slight silk or cotton. Turbans are frequently worn by the men, and hats sometimes by the women; shoes are not used by either sex. The men usually wear their hair twisted into a knot and fixed on the crown of the head, which was the ancient fashion among the Chinese, who now wear only a small lock of hair behind. The handles of the officers' swords are of silver, and generally well finished; but all arts and manufactures decay, owing to the insecurity of property. The particular branch of the arts in which the Cochin Chinese most excel is that of naval architecture. Their pleasure row-gallies are remarkably fine vessels, and are sometimes composed of five single planks, each extending from one extremity to the other. The edges are morticed, kept tight by wooden pins, and bound firm by twisted fibres of the bamboos without ribs or timbers of any kind. Their foreign traders are built on the same plan as the Chinese junks. In 1825 the sovereign had increased his regular navy to eleven sail of square-rigged vessels, mostly commanded and navigated by Chinese.

The Anam language is that of Cochin China and Tunquin. It is represented by the missionaries to be also generally used in Siampa and Cambodia. The Anam language and nation are often denominated Juan by the Malays and Siamese. It is

simple, original and monosyllabic, and has neither genders, numbers, nor cases; moods, tenses, nor conjugations; all of which are supplied by particles, and the juxtaposition of words, as in other monosyllabic languages. Conversation is a species of chaunt or recitative, as in Chinese, which has a very ludicrous effect on an unaccustomed ear, the intonation or accent being very similar to that of China. All, however, in this kingdom, who pretend to any pre-eminence in learning, greatly affect the Chinese literature and character.

The religion of Cochin China is a modification of the widely extended doctrines of Buddha, but more simple than that which is popularly practised in China. The natives are extremely superstitious, and their devotional exercises, like those of the Chinese, are more frequently performed to avert an ideal evil, than with the hope of attaining a positive good Besides the spontaneous offerings that individuals make on various occasions, a yearly contribution is levied by the government, and paid for the support of a certain number of monasteries, in which the priests invoke the deity for the public welfare. In 1820 the French missionaries estimated, but apparently without any rational data, the total population of the empire at six millions of persons, which number included 70,000 Christians, all Roman Catholics.

The ancient history of Cochin China is very little known, but the accounts are tolerably authentic from A.D. 1774, when the reigning family were expelled from Quinnong, the capital, by three brothers, who divided the country among them. The eldest brother was a wealthy merchant, the second a general officer, and the third a priest. When the revolt took place, the young prince, Caung Shang, with the queen and his family, by the assistance of a French missionary named Adran, escaped into a forest, where for some time they lay concealed. After various unsuccessful attempts against the usurpers he was compelled to fly, first to Pulowai, an uninhabited island in the gulf of Siam, and afterwards to Siam, from whence he was also expelled. The missionary Adran in the mean time proceeded with his eldest male child to France, to endeavour to procure assistance, which was frustrated by the breaking out of the revolution.

Caung Shang, after remaining two years on the island of Pulowai, feeding on roots, and enduring many hardships, ventured to land on his own country in 1790, from whence he at last managed to expel the successors of the original usurpers, and afterwards effected the conquest of Tunquin. In 1797 and 1798, with the assistance of the missionary Adran, who had returned from Europe, he began many improvements, seldom attempted in Asiatic governments. He established a manufactory of saltpetre; opened roads of communication, and encouraged cultivation; he distributed his land forces into regular regiments, and established military schools, where the officers were instructed in the science of projectiles and gunnery by European masters, and Adran translated into the Chinese language a system of military tactics. In the course of two years he constructed at least 300 large gun boats or row gallies, five luggers, and a frigate on the model of a European vessel. He caused a system of naval tactics to be introduced, and had his officers instructed in the use of signals. He also undertook to reform the existing system of jurisprudence, and sent missions into the mountainous districts, to investigate their condition and advance their civilization. He openly declared his great veneration for the Christian religion, which he tolerated, and indeed all others in his dominions, although he adhered in practice to the ancient faith of his country. In A.D. 1800 Adran the missionary died, and was interred with all the pomp and ceremonies prescribed by the Cochin Chinese doctrines.

Three attempts were made by the

East-India Company to open an intercourse with Cochin China: one in 1778 by Mr. Hastings, one in 1804 by an envoy from Canton, and one in 1822 under Mr. Crawfurd; but the whole proved unsuccessful. The political system of this country, like that of all the countries of India beyond the Ganges, is one of extreme caution, and aversion to any intimate connexion with strangers. Caung Shung, the restorer of the dynasty, in 1806 was in his fiftieth year, but the period of his decease has not been ascertained. In 1821 the reigning sovereign's name (who died soon after) was Ming-ming; that of his predecessor Kealung. At that date there were only two Frenchmen at court, and they were on the eve of embarkation for Europe, having latterly been much neglected. In 1821 a kind of demi-official mission was despatched from Saigon to the sovereign of the Burmese, being probably the first regular external diplomatic relation (except with China) ever entered into by this monarchy. The pretensions of China to the kingdom of Tunquin, formerly tributary to that empire, are incessantly to be guarded against; but while the Cochin Chinese maintain their present (comparatively) formidable army of 40,000 disciplined men, they have little to fear from any of their immediate neighbours, who, besides the Chinese, are the Siamese and the wild tribes of the interior.—(*Barrow, Crawfurd, Singapoor Chronicle, Lieut. White, Staunton, Leyden, De Bussachere, &c.*)

Cockley.—A village on the north-eastern coast of Ceylon, situated near a considerable river, about thirty-eight miles N.N.W. from Trincomalee; lat. 9° N., lon. 80° 58′ E.

Coco Isles.—Two small islands in the bay of Bengal, lying due north of the Andamans, and situated about lat. 14° N., lon. 93° E. The largest may be about eight miles in circumference, and they both abound with cocoa-nut trees, from which they derive their name. They do not appear to have been ever inhabited.

Cocoa Isles.—A cluster of very small isles lying off the west coast of Sumatra: lat. 3° 2′ N., lon. 96° 10′ E.

Coconada.—A village on the sea-coast of the Northern Circars; district of Rajamundry, situated on the bank of the little river Eliseram, and communicating by a ferry with the Dutch settlement of Jaganacpooram on the opposite side. This spot is the usual residence of the collector and magistrate of the Rajamundry district, and it is distant from the town of that name about thirty road miles to the east.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Coel.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, from which fortress it is two miles distant S. by E., and connected by a fine avenue of trees, lat. 27° 54′ N., lon. 78° E. When Abul Fazel wrote, in A.D. 1582, Coel was a place of importance, and it is still a large open busy town, the head-quarters of the civil authorities attached to the Alighur district. The only remarkable building is the great mosque, built on an elevated spot in the centre of the town, and commanding from its minars an extensive view of the adjacent country. At this place there is part of a minar, about twenty feet in diameter and thirty-five high, which by the inscription appears to have been built in the reign of Nusser ud Deen, A.D. 1254, Hijera 652. It is conjectured to have been built by some of the early Mahomedan conquerors on the ruins of a Hindoo temple.—(*Fullarton, Ewer, &c.*)

Coilconda.—A large district in the Hyderabad province, situated to the west of Golconda, about the seventeenth degree of north latitude, but respecting the interior of which, and the Nizam's dominions generally, very little is known. The town of Coilconda stands in lat. 16° 51′ N., lon. 77° 50′ E., about fifty-seven miles S.W. from Hyderabad.

Coille.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, forty-

eight miles N. by E. from Patna; lat. 26° 25′ N., lon. 85° 40′ E.

COILLEREPETTAH.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, 100 miles N.N.E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 23′ N., lon. 78° 10′ E.

COIMBATOOR.

(Coimaturu.)

A small province in the south of India, situated above the Eastern ghaut mountains, about the eleventh degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Mysore territories; on the south by Dindigul; on the east it has Salem and Trichinopoly; and on the west the province of Malabar. Under this collectorate are included the divisions of Caroor, Satimangalum, and Daraporam, and the whole province may be reckoned from north to south fifty miles, by about forty-five from east to west. The table-land, or rather the general height of the low country in Coimbatoor, for it is much undulated, is about 900 feet above the level of the sea; and towards Tinnevelly it falls to between 400 and 500 feet; but to the northward it shoots up to a prodigious elevation, the Kumbetarine hill (lat. 11° 35′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.) being reckoned by Colonel Lambton 5,548 feet above the level of the ocean, and some of the Neelgherry mountains are still higher. About forty miles due west from Daraporam there is an opening in the western ghaut chain of mountains, named the Palighautcherry pass, which is in width at its eastern extremity, seven miles, and in length at least thirty-one miles. This pass is funnel-shaped, being more than double the width at the end which opens towards the Malabar coast, as compared with the end contiguous to the Coimbatoor district. It is nearly on a level with the lands on either side of the ghauts, so that there is a free passage for the north-west and south-west winds from the Malabar coast.

Coimbatoor is watered by several rivers; the most considerable is the Cavery, which is filled by both monsoons; by the S.W. in June, July, and August; and by the north-east in October, November, and December. In December and January the thermometer ranges from 62° to 80° in the shade, in May from 79° to 97°, yet the climate is pleasant. Towards the end of January and in February the dews fall heavily, and near the mountains the morning fogs continue until nine o'clock. In March, rain is very uncommon, and upon the whole Coimbatoor climate may be described as healthy, yet at certain seasons the high lands are dangerous. The soil is generally dry; but in the vicinity of the hills, and also in some of the southern portions, there is much low marshy ground; and although the territory may in general terms be called an open country, it is in many parts diversified with woods, wastes, and jungles. From its great elevation the soil of Coimbatoor is generally dry, and well adapted for the dry grain cultivation. Except along the tract immediately facing the Palighautcherry pass, the low country of the Coimbatoor district is still more completely sheltered than the Mysore from the violence of the south-west monsoon, and the intervening wall of the ghaut mountains forms a more distinct boundary between the two seasons.

In North Coimbatoor, near Mulu and Coleagala, the cultivation is equal to any in India, and consists chiefly of rice fields watered from large reservoirs, but they are not on so grand a scale as in the Mysore, and many are now in ruins. The summit of the Eastern ghaut mountains are here from 1,500 to 2,000 feet above the level of the upper country, which although beautiful and fertile is thinly inhabited, and produces little serviceable timber. In this mountainous tract there are two rainy seasons: the first in the month following the vernal equinox; the second lasts the two months before and the two months after the autumnal equinox. The people in the neighbourhood consider the ox as a living god, who gives them their bread, and

in every village there are one or two bulls to whom weekly or monthly worship is performed, and when one of them dies he is buried with great ceremony. From Candhully to Mahally, in North Coimbatoor, much of the country has been formerly cultivated, but is now waste. The strata of the ghauts in this quarter run north and south, and are vertical; but the rock being much broken by fissures, it is little used for building.

Near to the town of Coimbatoor the soil is generally good, and tolerably clear of rocks and stones. Hedge row enclosures, formed of the milk plant, prickly pear, and other tropical shrubs, are general, and are seen intersecting fields now overgrown with jungle. The rows of Parkinsonia in the vicinity of the towns are likewise a great embellishment. The bagait or gardens are watered by machines called capilly and yatam, and reservoirs are also common; but in the neighbourhood of Daraporam irrigation is performed by means of canals filled from the Amaravati river. Taking the whole province, however, in the aggregate, the average of the wet cultivation amounts to little more than three per cent. of the total agriculture. Cotton is an article of considerable cultivation both above and below the ghauts, and almost in every soil. One species of the gossypium is an annual, and the other a triennial plant, of which the last is much superior in quality, although not so heavy in the crop. There is also a third sort resembling the Brazil, which is raised both for ornament and for the sacred threads of the Brahmins. With encouragement, the produce of cotton might be greatly augmented and the quality improved. Throughout Coimbatoor there are earths impregnated with muriatic salts, and others with nitrates, which have occasionally been converted into culinary salt and saltpetre. This earth seems to contain nitre ready formed, as no potash is added to it during the process by the manufacturers. Most of the well water also has a saline taste. In 1818 a mine or well of aquamarine stones (a variety of beryl) was found out, and worked by the discoverer, Mr. Heath, one-half for his own benefit, and the other for that of government.

With respect to the useful arts, the inhabitants of Coimbatoor appear to be as far behind those of Mysore in intelligence, as these last are behind the natives of Madras and Calcutta; yet on the whole they appear to enjoy comparative comfort. Indeed there is perhaps no province of India in which the peasantry are so well lodged as in Coimbatoor, although there is a remarkable deficiency of houses of the better order, and in truth of all beyond a cottage of red mud, with a roof of tile or thatch. A practice prevails here, not uncommon in the south of India, of ornamenting the areas in front of their temples and choultries with gigantic groups of caparisoned horses, elephants, and other grotesque figures in various combinations, all formed of cast pottery covered with chunam. The towns are in general well-built, and some of them, such as Coimbatoor, Daraporam, Bhavani, and Caroor, large and populous. As in most parts of Bengal where the arts have not been introduced by foreigners, the only one that has attained tolerable perfection is that of weaving. In 1817 the gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 6,66,894 pagodas

In ancient times the Coimbatoor province was named Kanjam, and came under the dominion of the Mysore rajas about 175 years ago. It now forms one of the collectorates under the Madras presidency, having been acquired by the British government in 1799. In the years 1809, 1810, and 1811, an epidemic fever prevailed, which destroyed a great number of the inhabitants, and threatened to depopulate the whole district, then estimated to contain 596,606 persons. In 1822, according to the returns then made by the collectors under the Madras presidency, the total population of Coimbatoor amounted to

638,199 persons. — (*F. Buchanan, Hodgson, Fullarton, Medical Reports, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Coimbatoor.—The capital of the preceding province, situated in lat. 10° 52′ N., lon 77° 5′ E., 112 miles S. by E. from Seringapatam. This place stands high and dry, clear of the Palighatcherry pass, and is tolerably well built; but the water is considered brackish, and supposed by the natives to occasion the cutaneous diseases that are so common among the poorer classes. There is a mosque here which was built by Tippoo, who sometimes resided at Coimbatoor, which latterly has been the head-quarters of a cavalry regiment. Two miles from hence, in the neighbourhood of Penura, both culinary salt and saltpetre are procured by lixiviating the soil; and at Topumbetta, five miles north, iron is smelted from black sand. At Perura is a celebrated temple dedicated to Siva, called Mail (high) Chittumbra, to distinguish it from another Chittumbra near Pondicherry. The idol is said to have placed itself here many ages ago; but it is only 3,000 years since the temple was erected over it by a raja of Madura The building is highly ornamented after the Hindoo fashion, but the figures are destitute of all elegance, and some of them indecent. When Tippoo issued a general order for the destruction of all idolatrous buildings he excepted only this edifice, and the temples of Mailcotta and Seringapatam. The hereditary chief of Coimbatoor is of the Vaylalar tribe; the one existing in 1800 being by his own account the twentieth in descent from the founder of the town. The family originally paid tribute to the Raja of Madura. In the year 1783 Coimbatoor was taken from Tippoo by the southern army, but restored at the peace in 1784. In the war of 1790 it was early taken possession of by the British troops, but afterwards besieged by those of Tippoo: who were repulsed in an attempt to storm, by a weak garrison under Lieut. Chalmers. Subsequently it surrendered to Cummer ud Deen Khan, Tippoo's general, and the garrison, in breach of the capitulation, detained prisoners until the general peace of 1792. Along with the province it was transferred to the British government in A.D. 1799. Travelling distance from Madras 306 miles; from Seringapatam 122 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Dirom, Rennell, Medical Reports, &c.*)

Colabba —A small town on the sea-coast of the Aurungabad province, about nineteen miles south from Bombay fort; lat. 18° 38′ N., lon. 73° 6′ E. In 1820 a treaty was concluded with Ragojee Angria, the chieftain of Colabba, defining the boundary of that principality, and adjudicating some fiscal claims.—(*Public MS Documents, &c.*)

Colabba.—This name is also applied to the narrow promontory immediately to the south of Bombay, from which it is but imperfectly separated, and in the maps sometimes distinguished by the name of "Old Woman's Island." On this spot there stands a fine light-house, and cantonments for the European troops have also been erected. The name of Colabba, however, applies more properly to the southern portion of the island, which is connected with the northern by a small causeway, overflowed at spring tides.

Among the historical records still extant at Bombay, is to be found the ancient composition entered into between Sir Gerard Angier and the Portuguese inhabitants, in 1674, on which document the Company's right to Colabba is founded. The non-appropriation of this island to any improved revenue purpose for so many years, was not owing to any physical imperfection, but to an opinion generally entertained, that the whole island should be reserved for a military cantonment, in consequence of which no alienation of land took place for above a century, with the exception of a small portion of Old Woman's Island, which by a special grant became freehold property in 1746. Many abstractions have since taken

place, and the Company have been obliged, in many instances, to re-purchase their own lands at immense prices. In 1805 sixty thousand rupees were paid for eight houses, including a temporary hospital, besides an enormous expenditure for repairs.—(*Capt. Dickinson, &c.*)

COLAGALL (*or Collegal Pettah*).—A town in the province of Coimbatoor, thirty-one miles E.S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 13′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E. In 1820 this was a thriving place, and had two streets of large white tiled cottages, uniformly built, and inhabited by weavers.

COLAIR LAKE.—A large fresh-water lake or jeel, situated at the north-eastern projecting corner of the Condapilly circar, about five miles south from Ellore, chiefly formed of the overflowings of the Krishna and Godavery rivers, which are from hence conducted into many channels to irrigate the circumjacent territory. Its bed is of an oval shape, and occupies a natural hollow, into which several streams discharge themselves, the surplus waters being carried off by the river Ooputnair. The breadth of this lake varies from seven to twelve miles, while its extreme length may be estimated at twenty-two miles, covering an area of about twenty-two square miles. It comprehends several islands of various dimensions, which disappear as the lake swells, and re-appear as the floods subside, when they are in excellent condition for rice, with which they are immediately planted. On a failure of the periodical supplies the lake dries up, and drinkable water becomes so scarce that the poorer inhabitants are compelled to migrate, and suffer privations almost equal to a famine.—(*Orme, 5th Report, J. Grant, &c.*)

COLANGODU.—A small town in the south-eastern division of the Malabar province; lat. 10° 42′ N., lon. 76° 49′ E.

COLAPOOR (*Calapur*).—A small independent Maharatta state in the province of Bejapoor, the territories of which are partly situated below the western ghaut mountains in the Concan, and partly in the elevated land within the ghauts; but all so intermingled with the possessions of other Maharatta chiefs and with those of the British government, that it is quite impossible to discriminate them. Until 1812 the Colapoor chief possessed Malwan and three other fortresses on the sea-coast, which were then ceded to the British government. At present the chief towns within this principality are Colapoor (the capital), Parnellah, Mulcapoor, and Culgong.

The Colapoor family trace their descent from Sevajee, the founder of the Maharatta empire. According to their traditions Sevajee had two sons, Sambha and Rama; the first of these had also two sons, Sahoo and Sambha. Sahoo died without issue; Sambha adopted a son, from whom the Colapoor raja is descended, who being thus lineal heir of Sevajee in the elder branch, took precedence of the Peshwa, and was addressed by the latter as his superior. Sewai Chutter Putter (the reigning raja in 1803) gained a great deal of country by usurpation and conquest, during the confusion in the Peshwa's dominions after the death of Madhoorow, particularly from his neighbours the Putwurden family, although he was only at war with one branch of it (Appah Saheb); but among the Maharattas such aggressions are not thought incompatible with the accustomed relations of peace and amity.

During Purseram Bhow's imprisonment the Colapoor raja seized the opportunity to ravage the possessions of his family (the Putwurdens), and actually plundered some of their principal towns, such as Savanore, Hubely, and Jasgone. The latter was the Bhow's capital, where he had expended a large sum in erecting a palace, which the raja burned to the ground and demolished forthwith. When liberated, the old Bhow carried on a war for some time against the raja; but being defeated and taken prisoner in 1799, was, although a

Brahmin, cut to pieces in the presence of his enemy. His son, Appah Saheb, then took the command of the troops, animated by the most implacable hatred towards the Colapoor chief, declaring he would never forgive or forget such an act of atrocity, and expressing his willingness to sacrifice all that he had in the world, and retire a naked mendicant to Benares, if he could only adequately revenge the slaughter of his father. But this satisfaction he was not destined to enjoy, for just when, with the assistance of Dowlet Row's regular infantry, he had reduced the fortress of Colapoor to the last extremity, and was on the eve of accomplishing his wishes, Sindia, by secret agreement with his enemy, withdrew his troops; and Appah Saheb, unable to prosecute the siege with his own troops and resources, was compelled to retreat. In 1803 a cessation of hostilities was effected by the Duke of Wellington.

In 1804, in consequence of the repeated piracies committed by the Raja of Colapoor's subjects, his ports were blockaded, and payment demanded of money due to the Company and to the British merchants at Bombay. During the time of war, the cruizer stationed on the coast was never of sufficient strength to fight one of the enemy's privateers, on which account, to avoid the disgraceful event of her capture, General Wellesley recommended a treaty to be entered into with the raja, which, if he afterwards broke, it would afford ample grounds to the British government to get effectually rid of an evil, which, in the existing state of its power, was derogatory to its dignity.

About this period, also, Viswas Row Ghautky and Serjee Row Ghautky, two favourites of Sindia, and most persevering depredators, took refuge with the Colapoor raja, after their own banditti had been defeated and dispersed by General Wellesley. The general in consequence addressed a letter in 1804 to the raja, informing him that he was perfectly aware of the family connexion between him and these brothers, and that it was not the custom of the British government, nor his own wish, to perpetuate enmities, or to deprive those of an asylum who were inclined to live in peace, for which reason he did not call on the raja to deliver up the two Ghautkies, as he might be justified in doing. At the same time he notified to the raja, that as he had given them an asylum, the British government would consider him responsible for their conduct; and, that if they again assembled troops, which could only be intended to disturb the peace of other powers, he (the raja) would be called upon to answer for the injuries they might do, of which circumstance that letter was a friendly notification. The duke added: "it is time that the nations of India should enjoy some peace, and you may depend upon it that the British government will not suffer it to be wantonly disturbed with impunity."

From the above date the state of Colapoor enjoyed comparative tranquillity, and in 1812 was again rescued from intestine disorders by the interference of the British government. In 1820 it was considered by Mr. Elphinstone in a state of prosperity, but on the 16th July 1821 the raja was shot in his own palace by one of his own sillahdars, named Synjee Bajee, and died the same evening. He left an infant son, during whose minority it was intended the state affairs should be managed by his mother and the family priest, but dissentions soon arose, which again required the intervention of the British. In fact, the disordered state of the police, and the insubordination of the raja's vassals (over whom in the remote tracts he had no control), the number of strong holds among the western ghauts, the lawless habits of the population, and the vicinity to Sawuntwarree, all combined to keep this petty principality in a state of perpetual combustion. In 1827 the raja himself became refractory, which occasioned the advance of a British detachment, on the approach of which

he agreed to disband his numerous levies, and remain quiet as long as he could, being of a most unsettled disposition.—(*MSS., Malcolm, Malet, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Colapoor.—The capital of the preceding petty state, is situated lat. 16° 19′ N., lon. 74° 25′ E., 121 miles south by east from Poona. In 1825 it was approached for the first time by a British army, when our soldiers encamped within a short distance of the raja's palace, where they waited until the ratification of the treaty by the raja The town stands in a valley between a curved range of hills, that protects it on three sides. The fort does not appear strong, depending principally on the ditch, its main defence being the two hill-forts of Pownghur and Penowlghur, situated on the range of mountains that shuts in the valley, about ten miles north west from Colapoor The last is about three and a half miles in circumference, and connected with the first at one point by a neck of land. Both stand on rocks from 250 to 300 feet high, from which spring natural ramparts of basalt from thirty to sixty feet perpendicular scarp, surmounted by other defensive works. After ascending the barren rock, the interior presents a neat town, lofty trees, gardens, and fine tanks. — (*Public Journals, &c.*)

Colastry.— A zemindary thus named in the Carnatic, in which copper mines are situated To the west lies the Uddegherry jaghire and the ceded districts, to the north the Naidoo country, belonging to the Vencattygherry raja, and to the eastward the Nellore district The principal mining places are about fifty miles N.W. from Nellore, thirty from the sea, and about forty N E. of Cuddapah Several streams traverse it on their way to the sea; but the general aspect of the country is barren and uncomfortable The copper strata are of various density and distance, but the general run of the ore is in layers two inches thick, although they are occasionally found several feet in thickness. The natives assert that diamonds were formerly discovered in the mica slate of the Uddegherry jaghire. The copper ore is of the sort that Dr. Thomas Thomson calls anhydrous, and the specimen he analyzed yielded an average of fifty per cent. of pure metal; but others so little as seventeen, and even six per cent.

The countries in this quarter of Hindostan where copper ores have been discovered, are Colastry, Vencattygherry, Uddegherry, Dupaud, and some other places in the ceded districts; but the richest are in the Colastry zemindary. Dr. Heyne recommends these mines to attention; first, on account of their being only thirty miles from the sea, and within twenty miles of fuel, secondly, on account of a river which is capable of being rendered navigable; thirdly, on account of the particular rock formation, usually rich in metal; and lastly, on account of the intrinsic excellence of the ore —(*Heyne, &c.*)

Colawassa —A village in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, situated on the southern skirt of Tondiman's country, about fifty miles travelling distance N E. from the town of Madura. A handsome mausoleum has here been erected over the remains of a Mahomedan saint, on the margin of a fine tank faced with masonry.

Coles —See Orissa Province.

Coffshy —A small town in Travancore, nineteen miles west by north from Cape Comorin, lat. 8° 11′ N., lon. 77° 32′ E. At this place there is a small harbour, protected from the winds by some rocks. The Danes formerly had a factory here.

Coleroon River —The northern branch of the Cavery, which separates from the other below the island of Seringham, near Trichinopoly, bounds the Tanjore principality to the north, and after a course of about eighty miles falls into the sea at Devicotta. At the point of junction the southern branch is twenty feet higher than the Coleroon, which latter is suffered to run waste to the sea. Above Devi-

cotta the river is divided into three channels, two of which are considerably wider than any of the branches of the Cavery, but all comparatively shallow, and indeed at certain seasons without water altogether.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

COLGONG (*Kahalgang*).—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, which in 1809 contained about 400 houses; lat. 25° 14′ N., lon. 87° 15′ E., 102 miles N.W from Moorshedabad. Although the Ganges runs almost due north from Colgong to Patergotta for about eight miles, and although it not only washes but surrounds the rocks of the Vindhyan mountains, this spot, which ought by the Hindoos to be thought on both accounts peculiarly holy, is totally neglected, and no assembly of that persuasion takes place here for the purpose of expiating their sins by ablution; on the contrary, all the pilgrims flock to the opposite side, where the river follows its usual course, and the country is a dead level. If not the sanctity, the beauty of the scenery, had they any taste (which they have not) might attract them, for the bay formed by the projecting points of Colgong and Patergotta, with its fine amphitheatre of hills and little wooded islands, presents perhaps the most fascinating landscape along the whole course of the Ganges. Quarries of chalk are worked in the neighbourhood of Colgong.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

COLINDA.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Tiperah, seventy-three miles S.E. from Dacca; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 91° 0′ E. In the surrounding country, which is flat and swampy, baftaes, cossaes, and other coarse cotton goods of an excellent durable quality are manufactured, remarkable for the weight of the raw material they contain.

COLLARASS.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Narwar, eighty miles north from Seronge; lat. 25° 14′ N., lon. 77° 25′ E. This place is surrounded by an old stone wall of no strength, near to which is a large nullah or water-course of fine water. The country to the north is jungly and thinly inhabited, much obstructed by ravines, and, except in the vicinity of the Sinde river, is during the dry season very ill supplied with water.—(*MSS., &c.*)

COLONG.—An island, town, and river, off, on, and in the Malay peninsula, principality of Salengore; lat. 3° N., lon. 101° 28′ E. It stands about twenty miles from the mouth of the river, and is occasionally the raja's residence. Prior to the war with the Siamese in 1822, the inhabitants were reckoned at 1,500 persons.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

COLOUR.—A town in the Carnatic province, thirty-eight miles west from Nellore, lat. 14° 31′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E.

COLUMBO.—The modern capital of Ceylon, situated on the south-west coast; lat. 6° 55′ N., lon. 79° 45′ E. The fort is built on a peninsula projecting into the sea, and measures one mile and a quarter in circumference. It consists of seven principal bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by 300 pieces of cannon. The site is all but insulated, the sea reaching up to two-thirds of the works, and the rest (except two very narrow causeways) being protected by an extensive lake of fresh water. On the south side the surf runs so high, and the shore is so rocky, that it would be dangerous to approach it; and on the west side, where the sea is smoother, it is defended by strong batteries. Four of the bastions look towards the sea, the other three face the lake and command the causeway leading to the fort. A projecting rock, on which two batteries are placed, affords shelter to a small semicircular bay on the north side of the fort, but on account of a sand-bar only resorted to by small craft. The outer road affords secure anchorage from the beginning of October to the end of March, when the wind blows off the land from the north-east; during the other six months the south-west wind blows

on the shore, and the coast (for there is, strictly speaking, no harbour) is not practicable.

The plan of Columbo is regular, and nearly divided into four quarters by two principal streets, which cross each other, and extend the whole length of the town. The houses are of stone, clay, and lime, and the whole city has more of the European style and appearance than any other in India. The houses are seldom above one story high, and all had glass windows until the arrival of the English, who substituted venetian blinds, the natives of Holland having never been partial to a free circulation of air. Before each house is a large wooden veranda, supported by wooden pillars, to exclude the sun. The government house fronts the sea on the north side of the fort, and is a handsome building of two stories. The church of Wolfendal, where the Dutch inhabitants attend public worship, stands on the summit of a rising ground in the suburbs, and it is also attended by the Malabar and Cingalese Christians. Beyond the walls is a mud village and bazar, on a space called slave-island (in reality a peninsula projecting into the lake), thus named from having formerly been occupied by the slaves belonging to the Dutch government. The pettah, or outer town, stands a few hundred yards to the eastward of the fort, on which it encroaches, and contains more houses than are within the fortifications. The fort is chiefly occupied by the British, the pettah by the Dutch and Portuguese, and the suburbs, much the most populous part, by the Ceylonese. One street is entirely peopled by Mahomedans, here named Lubbies, who follow the occupations of pedlars, tailors, fishermen, and mariners. The aggregate of all descriptions in 1804 was estimated at 50,000 inhabitants, and we have no more recent enumeration. In 1821 the number of Europeans at Columbo capable of serving on juries was only thirty-two.

The west coast of Ceylon is remarkable for an equality of temperature, and humidity of the air, the consequence of which is that at Columbo, unless books and clothes are frequently exposed to the sun, they soon become covered with mildew, and rapidly decay. The average range of the barometer throughout the year may be considered about 29° 9 inches, the highest being 30°, and the lowest 29° 7 inches. But the climate of Columbo on the whole may be reckoned salubrious and temperate, Fahrenheit's thermometer ranging about 80°; and even in the full blaze of a meridian sun, owing to the fresh sea breezes, Europeans find it pleasant to walk and drive about in open carriages. Indeed the whole scenery presents a striking contrast to the arid plains, withered vegetation, scorching winds, and burning dust of Madras. The water within the fort is of a brackish taste, that used by the European establishment being brought from a distance.

Although Trincomalee, on account of its harbour and position, be of more intrinsic importance to the nation, Columbo is in every other respect superior, being placed in the centre of the cinnamon country, and possessing a more numerous population. The harbour is unfortunately nothing more than an open roadstead, and, owing to the course of the monsoons, the inhabitants for a considerable portion of the year are cut off from all maritime intercourse with the rest of the island. The internal navigation, however, in a lateral direction along the coast, is excellent, and on the rivers and water-courses several hundred flat-bottomed boats are seen, with entire families, who reside permanently on board. Nearly all the foreign commerce of Ceylon is concentrated at this port, as is also a large proportion of the coasting traffic. In 1656 the town and fortress of Columbo were taken from the Portuguese by the Dutch, in whose possession it remained until 1796, when it was captured by the British, and subsequently ceded by the peace of Amiens. Letters from Columbo to Madras, a distance of

500 miles, are generally conveyed in ten, but an express has been frequently accomplished in eight days.—(*Cordiner, Percival, Milburn, Davy, &c.*)

COMBHER.—A town in the province of Agra, belonging to the Bhurtpoor raja, and situated about ten miles west from his capital; lat. 27° 17′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E. At this place is manufactured the salt distinguished by the name of balumba in Upper Hindostan, where large quantities are annually consumed. It is extracted from the saline water of wells in the vicinity, is usually of a small grain, and preserved in pits.

COMBOOCONUM.—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, twenty-three miles N.E. from the city of Tanjore; lat. 10° 59′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E. This was the ancient capital of the Chola race, one of the most ancient Hindoo dynasties of which any traces have been discovered in the southern regions, and from which in later times the whole coast of Cholamundul (Coromandel) has taken its name. There are still remains indicating its ancient splendour. At present it is chiefly inhabited by Brahmins, whose habitations appear neat, and the district thriving. Some of the tanks and pagodas are very fine; but it is remarkable that almost invariably the outer gate of the pagoda is of superior dimensions to the pagoda itself. At this place there is a consecrated pond, which possesses, every twelfth year, the virtue of cleansing all who bathe in it from corporeal and spiritual impurities, although accumulated through many transmigrations. When these periods of plenary indulgence arrive, swarms of sinners collect from all points of the compass, in order to avail themselves of the fortunate moment when the efficacy of the puddle is most intense. In 1820 Combooconum was the head-quarter of the zillah court of Tanjore, but the collector and magistrate resides at Nagore.

COMERCOLLY (*Kumarkhali*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajeshahy, situated a few miles south from the main stream of the great Gangetic branch named the Puddah, about sixty-four miles S.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 89° 11′ E. The East-India Company have long had here a permanent factory and commercial resident for the purchasing of piece-goods and raw silk.

COMILLA.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Tipera, of which it is the modern capital; lat. 23° 28′ N., lon. 90° 43′ E., fifty-one miles S.E. from Dacca. Six miles west from this place are the remains of many large brick buildings, and of a fort about 200 feet square, the vestiges of the residence of the ancient Tipera rajas. In recent times the roads around Comilla have been greatly improved, or rather created, by the judicious application of the labour performed by the government convicts.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

COMOBO.—An island in the eastern seas, situated between Sumbhawa and Floris, and the eighth and ninth degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-two miles, by sixteen the average breadth.

COMORIN, CAPE (*Cumari*).—The southern extremity of what is miscalled the peninsula, which, notwithstanding its remarkable position, never attracted in the slightest degree the attention of Hindoo geographers, ancient or modern; lat. 8° 4′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E. It is, however, mentioned under the name of Cape Comari by Marco Polo, in A.D. 1295.

COMPTA.—A town on the sea-coast of the Canara province, twelve miles N.N.W. from Onore; lat. 14° 25′ N., lon. 75° 32′ E.

CONARAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 59′ N., lon. 83° 44′ E. This place stands on the sea-side, near the mouth of a small river crossed by a sand-bar, but which affords occasional shelter to the country native craft trading along

the coast. The dangerous Santapilly rocks are in the offing.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Concan (*Cancana*). — A large subdivision of the Bejapoor province, of which it occupies the whole sea-coast, being confined on the east by the western ghaut mountains. In length it may be estimated at 220 miles, by thirty-five the average breadth, and includes many fertile tracts producing rice, but its general features present a congeries of steep rocky mountains. Towards the western ghauts this country is strong, being crossed by hills, intersected by ravines, and covered with thick forests. The range of mountains is from 2,000 to 4,000 feet high, on the west abrupt, and of difficult access, and the passes not practicable for wheeled carriages. The table-land to the east is nearly as high as many parts of the ridge, but in general the hills surpass it in elevation from 1,000 to 1,500 feet. This table-land is also strong by nature, being crossed by spurs or cordilleras from the main chain, between which are deep, winding, rugged vallies, choked up with jungle. Further east, as we approach the Nizam's frontier, the country becomes more level, until it ends in an open plain.

This word by the natives is pronounced Kokun, and applied by them in quite a different sense to what it is by Europeans, for it includes much country lying to the east of the western ghauts. In one sense it is synonimous with a hilly mass of country subject to the severity of the south-west monsoon, in contradistinction to dea, a plain; but there are exceptions also to this definition. In the Deccan, the seven Concans of Hindoo mythology are still known, and comprehend the whole of the Parasu Rama Cshetra, or the greater part of the south-western coast; they are named Kerala (Malabar), Tulava, Govarashtra (Goa), Cancana Proper, Keraraha, Varalatta, and Berbera. In the British arrangements the southern portion of the Hindoo Concan is included in the district of North Canara; but in the Hindoo geography of the west of India, Concan Proper begins at the river Gangawala, in lat. 14° 37′, where Haiga ends.

The surface of the country exhibits a gradual declension from the ghauts towards the sea, and is traversed by numerous mountain streams, but no river of magnitude. There are few countries so much broken into small bays and harbours as this is, with so straight a general outline. This multitude of shallow ports, an uninterrupted view along shore, and an elevated coast, favourable to distant vision, have fitted this tract of country for a region of piracy. The land and sea-breezes on the coast of Concan, as well as on that of Coromandel, blow alternately in twenty-four hours, and divide the day, so that vessels sailing along are obliged to keep within sight of the land, as the land winds are not felt more than forty miles from the shore. The country produces all the grains of Malabar, and is particularly noted for the good quality of its hemp, the cocoa-nut here is also superior to that produced inland, and arrives much earlier at maturity.

The Brahmins properly belonging to the Concan are of the Paunsa Gauda, or north of India division; they allege that they are the descendants of the colony on whom the country, after the extirpation of the Khetries, was bestowed by Parasu Rama; their principal seat seems to have been Goa, called by them Govay, from whence they were expelled by the Portuguese, after which they for the most part became traders. It is asserted, that a numerous class of Concan Brahmins, named Kurrada, still perpetrate human sacrifices to a certain goddess, who is said to prefer, in that capacity, a Brahmin learned in the Shastras. In public situations many of these Kurradas are known and respected as intelligent, charitable, and humane individuals, who most strenuously deny the present existence of the practice. The Concan Brahmins, however, are generally

disclaimed by those of the rest of India; but they have long composed a large majority of the ruling characters in the Maharatta empire. When a translation of the Lord's Prayer into the Concan language was examined by the missionaries, they found that of thirty-two words which it contained, twenty-five were the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany translations, besides several Sanscrit words.

The inhabitants of this coast, from the earliest antiquity, have been noted for piracy, and in the eighteenth century exercised this vocation on all ships indiscriminately that did not purchase passes. The Angria family at one time possessed nearly the whole province, and in 1820 still retained about three lacks of revenue. In 1756 they were expelled from several of their principal piratical ports by Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive. In more recent times three-fourths of the Concan have been directly subject to the Maharatta Peshwa, on whose extinction, in 1818, they devolved to the British government, and from hence a large proportion of the Bombay army is now recruited. A large proportion of the inhabitants are genuine Hindoos, and the practice of widow-burning is here more common than in any province of Hindostan, except Bengal. In 1821 the number amounted to fifty; in 1823, to fifty-eight, besides those concealed and prevented. At present the whole territory is subordinate to the Bombay presidency, and subdivided into two districts, the Northern and Southern Concan.—(*Elphinstone, F. Buchanan, Orme, Dunlop, &c.*)

CONCAN, NORTHERN.—A British district in the province of Bejapoor, remarkable, with the southern district, for the astonishing number of hill-forts, fortified heights, and fortresses which it contained, when conquered by the British in 1818. They were found in a most neglected condition, no expenditure for repairs of walls, buildings, or reservoirs, having taken place for more than twenty years. The following names of some of the principal ones are recorded, as the whole will probably soon be forgotten.

Those on the sea-coast were Bassein, Arnalla, Kelvy, Mahim, Seregaum, Tairapoor (large, well-conditioned, and close to the sea-shore), Cheochun, Dhanoo, and Omergong, mostly constructed for the protection of the coasting trade against pirates, and soon after the British conquest ordered to be abandoned or demolished.

The principal fortified heights were Gumbheerghur, Seygwat, Assewah, Boputghur, and Purbhool, varying from 700 to 1,200 feet in perpendicular height, and of extremely difficult access; but besides these there were twelve others, of no use in a military point of view, the greater part of which were ordered to be destroyed.

The principal midland forts were Gotowra, Tookmook, Goje, Vickutghur, or Paib Mhooly, Mullunghur, and Asuree. The three last were deemed by the natives impregnable, but under the British domination become quite useless, and were ordered to be destroyed.

The frontier forts situated on the ghauts, or Sydershee mountains, were Byramghur, Goruckghur, Katulghur, and Sidghur, which last commands the Gareedharry pass. These are perpendicular rocks of great height, commanding different passes, and scarcely accessible; indeed, much labour must have been expended in cutting steps into the solid rock by which these fortified heights were ascended, and also in provisioning them, their immediate neighbourhood, from its extreme ruggedness, being generally uninhabited. From the Duntoora river to the Damaun Gunga, the northern boundary of the zillah, and a distance of seventy-three miles, there is an excellent road, unequalled, perhaps, for such an extent, in the whole world.

The tract ceded to the British government by the treaty of Poona, as far north as the Damaun river, constituting the then northern boundary

of the Concan, were annexed to Salsette, and designated the Northern Concan District; the revenue in 1817 was estimated at fifteen lacks of rupees.—(*Elphinstone, Capt. Dickinson, &c.*)

Concan, Southern.—A British district in the province of Bejapoor, which contains about 7,000 square miles, and presenting to a cursory observer little else than bare hills, rocks, ravines, chasms, jungle, and mountains. It is separated into nine grand divisions or talooks, the northern and southern boundaries of which are some considerable streams, flowing from the mountains to the sea. Each talook yields from 40,000 to 200,000 rupees annually, and is itself composed of smaller subdivisions named mahals, tuppahs, maumlahs, and turufs. In 1821, 2,249 villages were in the sole possession of the British; others were held in conjunction with petty chiefs, and many were mere clusters of thatched mud huts.

The land assessment has remained, with little variation, as it was, and the grain rental has hitherto, according to immemorial usage, and in conformity to the custom of the Concan, been received in kind. In 1821 the estimated official value of the grain was 4,44,691 rupees, and the collector was of opinion that the government did not take more than one-third of the gross produce. Rice composes four-fifths of the whole grain production; the remaining fifth consists of naglee, warree, oil grains, &c., but no wheat. Besides these, sugar-canes, turmeric, ginger, dal, &c. are raised. In 1820-21 the population of the Southern Concan was reported to be as follows:

Hindoos	532,183
Mahomedans	41,132
Mhers, Dhers, Chamars, Maungs, and other impure castes	57,292
Christians	1,087
Jews	643
Total	632,337

or about ninety-one and a half to the square mile.

Average collections of the Southern Concan:

1818-19	Rs. 8,27,933
1819-20	13,20,154
1820-21	11,64,433

(*Elphinstone, Pelly, &c.*)

Conchon (*Canchana, golden*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty-four miles N.N.E from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 15′ N., lon. 88° 42′ E.

Condatchy.—A bay in the island of Ceylon, situated about twelve miles south from the island of Manaar, and the most central rendezvous of the boats employed in the pearl-fishery. The oyster banks are scattered over a space in the gulf of Manaar, extending about thirty miles from north to south, and twenty-four from east to west; and the boats with their crews come from Manaar, Jafna, Ramiseram, Nagore, Tutecorin, Travancore, Kilkerry, and other parts on the main land. The shape of the oyster is an imperfect oval, nearly the same as a cockle, about nine inches and a half in circumference, and not good to eat. One oyster, including seed pearls, has been known to contain 150, while 100 oysters have been opened without the discovery of one. It is said to attain maturity in eight years, and not to admit of transportation from its native beds. The depth of water is usually from five to seven fathoms; some divers perform the dip in one minute, others in one and one-third, and scarcely any exceed one minute and a half submersion. Two millions of oysters have been landed in one day, and one boat has been known to bring 33,000, while another had not 300, the undertaking being much of a lottery. The pearls are sorted by being passed through the holes of brass sieves of various diameters. The pearl-fishery cannot be reckoned on as a regular source of revenue, as the banks become exhausted, and it is interrupted for a series of years, according to circumstances. After a

long interruption it has been known to yield above £100,000 for three successive years.—(*Cordiner, Percival, Lebeck, &c.*)

CONDAPILLY (*Canadapalli*).—One of the five original northern Circars, but now, like Ellore, for the most part comprehended in the Masulipatam collectorship. In 1786 the area of the two was estimated at 3,400 square miles, exclusive of the hilly region to the west. By the Mahomedans this division is named Mustaphanagur, under which appellation it is recorded in their revenue books. The river Ooputair, which separates the Condapilly Circar from Ellore and Rajamundry, is a salt-water river, and contributes largely to the revenue of the collectorate, being accessible at flood-tides for boats as far as Colair, and containing abundance of fish. It also carries off the surplus waters from the Colair lake, and after many windings, at last joins the sea between Samaldang and Gollapollam. There are diamond mines within the limits of Condapilly, but for many years they have not produced any profit, either to government or to private individuals.—(*J. Grant, 5th Report, Rennell, &c.*)

CONDAPILLY.—The ancient capital of the preceding Circar, situated in lat. 16° 37′ N., lon. 80° 33′ E., forty-nine miles N.W. from Masulipatam. This place many years ago was a hill, fortified in the Indian style, of considerable strength, but now, like many other native *strong-holds*, shorn of its beams, and suffered to crumble into ruin. It appears to have been first wrested from its native Hindoo princes by the Bhaminee sovereigns of the Deccan, about A.D. 1471, and became possessed by the British along with the northern Circars in 1765. Travelling distance from Hyderabad 142 miles; from Madras 306; from Nagpoor 370; and from Seringapatam 444 miles.—(*J. Grant, Ferishta, Rennell, &c.*)

CONDAVIR (*Canadavir*).—A town in the northern Circars, fifteen miles W. by S. from Guntoor; lat. 16° 13′ N., lon. 80° 18′ E.

CONIACOMBRY.—A small town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, thirteen miles E. by N. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 8′ N., lon. 77° 54′ E.

CONKAIR (*or Cakair*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated between a high rocky hill and the south bank of the Mahanuddy river, 1,953 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 20° 30′ N., lon. 82° 1′ E. On the summit of the hill, in 1794, there was a small fort mounting two guns. The country about Conkair is much covered with high woods, and the town surrounded by hills inhabited by wild Gond mountaineers, this being one of the tracts of the aboriginal Rajas of Gundwana. The frontier of the Bustar country is twelve miles distant from Conkair, and is entered through the Tillyghauty, a very steep and rugged pass over the hills.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

CONKI RIVER.—This is the most considerable mountain stream between the Teesta and the Cosi rivers, and is said to have its source close to mountains covered with perpetual snow, if it does not actually penetrate into Tibet. It enters Bengal in the district of Purneah, where it joins the Mahananda, which also absorbs its name. In the rainy season it can be ascended by small boats to a considerable distance, and it is found very useful for the floating down of timber.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CONJEVERAM (*Canchipura, the golden city*).—A considerable town in the Carnatic, district of Chingleput, forty-eight miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 49′ N., lat. 79° 41′ E. This place is built in a very straggling manner, and more resembles a connected series of handsome and spacious villages, interspersed with extensive gardens and cocoa-nut plantations, than a town. It stands in a valley, and covers a great space of ground, being from five to six miles in length, and tolerably populous.

Round the whole town is a bound-hedge, chiefly of the agave americana, formerly useful in keeping off the bands of irregular cavalry that follow Indian armies. The small river Wegawutty, that winds along the western skirts, contributes much to the fertility of the valley; and there are besides many substantial tanks, the whole having a prosperous appearance. The weavers are a numerous class, and the fabrics principally red handkerchiefs, turbans, and cloths adapted for the dresses of the natives.

The main entrance to the great pagoda, dedicated to Siva, is lofty, and resembles in its shape and ornaments that of Tanjore On the left, after passing through it, is a large edifice like a choultry, which the Brahmins assert contains 1,000 pillars, many of them handsomely sculptured, and several of the groups composed with considerable skill. The sides of the steps leading up to it are formed of two well-carved elephants drawing a car. The view from the top of the great gateway is uncommonly fine, consisting of extensive woods, intersected by a large sheet of water, numerous pagodas rising amidst trees, and a magnificent range of mountains at a distance. But although this be the most imposing edifice, it is not the temple most highly venerated, or the most curious in respect to workmanship, in which respects it must yield to the pagoda dedicated to Vishnu Conjee, which, in fact, originally conferred the appellation of Conjeveram. In this last, opposite to the door of the sanctuary, is a remarkable pillar of gilt copper, of modern erection, about a foot in diameter, and the sculptures of a choultry within the area are scarcely surpassed by those of any other Hindoo edifice, either for proportion or delicacy of execution. Many smaller pagodas, dedicated to various Brahminical deities, are visible on all sides, and there are whole streets of choultries, with which the adjacent country also abounds —(*Fullarton, Lord Valentia, Salt, Heyne, &c.*)

Contanagur (*Cantanagara*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, 112 miles N. by E from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 44′ N., lon. 88° 43′ E. This was formerly a place of some note, as is indicated by the remains of mounds and ramparts still visible; but it is at present only remarkable as containing one of the finest Hindoo temples extant in Bengal, where most of these edifices are of a very inferior construction.

Cooch Bahar (*Cuch Vihar*).—A small principality, long dependent on the kingdom of Bengal, and attached to the district of Rungpoor, situated at the north-eastern extremity, between the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. This western division of the ancient kingdom of Camroop, formerly comprehending the whole northern tracts from the Chonkosh river to the Mahananda, and from Ghoraghaut to the mountains of Bootan, extends in extreme length about ninety, and in extreme breadth about sixty miles. The modern territory of Cooch Bahar forms the boundary of a large portion of the Rungpoor district, and is partitioned into sections and divisions, in a very confused manner. The Cooch Bahar raja also possesses some tracts beyond the Mogul limits of Bengal, and not liable to tribute The northern extremity of this principality was settled on Siva Singh, of a family from which the rajas were obliged to choose their prime ministers. This portion, as producing an income of 32,000 rupees a year, was called Batrishazary; but the general name given to the whole principality was Bahar, and, to distinguish it from the large province of which Patna is the capital, the term Cooch has been prefixed, although particularly disagreeable to its princes, who, having in modern times set up for Rajbangsies, wish to sink all remembrance of the Cooch tribe.

The nature of this country is entirely the same with that of the adjacent parts of the British dominions,

and the management of the raja's estates beyond the frontier entirely resembles that pursued in the estates which belong to the raja as a zemindar of Bengal. The commerce between the two territories is on a very good footing, there being no restrictions whatever; but opium is cultivated to so large an extent, that it evidently is intended for contraband purposes. The southern portion of Cooch Bahar, lying along the river Durlah, is a highly improved and fertile country; but to the north of the town of Bahar the country has a most miserable appearance, the land being low and marshy, interspersed with thick jungle and many nullahs The vegetation is coarse, and the ground every where choaked up with rank grass, reeds, and ferns. In 1784 the total territorial area was calculated at 1,302 miles.

The most numerous and important tribe in this part of the ancient Camroop is by the Assamese, Nepaulese, and all such Bengalese as are under the influence of their chiefs, called indiscriminately Cooch and Rajbangsi, and the subdivisions and distinctions which they themselves have introduced are considered as mere effusions of vanity, the whole being thought low and impure. This opinion is exceedingly disagreeable to their chiefs, and especially to their princes, who pretend to be of divine origin, and many of whom observe the Hindoo law with such purity, that in their own territory they are allowed to be real Sudras; but the Bengalese hold them in the utmost contempt. Some of the Cooch, or Rajbangsi chiefs, pretend to be descended from the Khetries who escaped the massacre of Parasu Rama by flying to China.

One tribe, named the Pani Cooch, remain in a very rude state of society, and are still thinly scattered along the north-eastern parts of the Rungpoor district, Assam, and the lower parts of Bootan. By their religion they are permitted to eat swine, goats, ducks, sheep, deer, buffaloes, fowls, and they sometimes snare peacocks. On the other hand, they do not eat beef, and reject dogs, cats, frogs, and snakes, which are used by some other of the ruder tribes. Their ideas of rank are directly the reverse of those of the Hindoos, and approach near to European notions. They think a man higher the more he can indulge his appetites, on which account they acknowledge the superiority of their neighbours, as being eaters of dogs and beef.

The Cooch, at least all of them who have adopted the Brahminical religion and have relinquished their impure practices, assume the titles of Rajbangsies, or descendants of princes, which has also been assumed by several other rude tribes of Camroop and Chin, such as the Mech and Hajong, who, having followed their example in religion, have assumed the same title. But although all the Rajbansies are not Cooch, still by far the greater portion are of that tribe. The Khyen are the only tribe of Camroop that the Brahmins of Bengal will admit to be pure Sudras, which proves the great power their princes must at one time have possessed. for, except the Camroop Brahmins, no other person of the sacred order would drink water from the hands of the Cooch Bahar raja Harindra, although they are all in general willing to admit the divine origin of his family, and his own extraordinary sanctity. This person, who reigned in 1809, was considered by the natives as a very pious person for the following reasons: he paid no attention to business, but passed the whole of his time in retirement, and, as was supposed, much of it in prayer; besides this, he expended much of his income in supporting persons dedicated to a religious life, while he neglected his temporal duties, to the great detriment of his subjects; yet he was said to be naturally well-disposed, and desirous of rendering justice. The natives supposed that the gods had bestowed an extraordinary reward on this prince, by endowing him with supernatural vigour; but to Europeans who had

intercourse with him he appeared a poor creature, exhausted by drunkenness and debauchery.

The proprietor of the pergunnah in 1809 was a descendant of the daughter of Cooch Hajo, claimed a divine origin, and assumed the name of Narayana or Narrain. According to his genealogy, Viswa, the son of Siva, had three sons. The two elders were ancestors of the Rajas of Bahar and Bijnee; the youngest of the Pangga branch, which, having had many of their domains violently dissevered, retired to the forest, where they fortified themselves with a bamboo jungle, and led a savage kind of life. In 1809 the raja was only eighteen years of age, but called more by his people, to procure the management of his affairs. He never could be induced to dip deeper in literature than to learn to sign his name, although his mother used many endeavours to persuade him, and the collector having once caught him by surprise, gave him suitable admonition: his answer was, that he was a raja, and ought to give himself no sort of trouble. He had not even received the usual religious instruction, and cannot, therefore, spend any time in prayer or ceremonies, a usual resource of Hindoo princes against ennui. He rose about eight o'clock, passed an hour in cleaning himself and eating; he then went out to kill game, chiefly with poisoned arrows, in the preparation of which he was very skilful; in the afternoon he played at draughts or chess, and then went to bed.

Bykantpoor, although a part has been alienated to Bootan, is still a very fine estate, and contains the two whole police divisions of Fakeergunge and Sanyassigotta, and has been added to Bengal since the acquisition of the dewanny in 1765. The proprietors assert that they are descended from the god Siva, on which account the members of the family assume the title of Dev, and return no salute made to them, by whatever rank. The Cooch tribe still compose by far the greater portion of the original inhabitants of Camroop; and one class of that tribe, the Pani Cooch, which has not adopted the Brahminical customs, still preserve a language totally different from the Bengalese. By the latter they are often confounded with the Garrows. The early priesthood of the Cooch tribe were named Kolitas, who maintained a great influence over their rude flocks until the introduction of the Brahmins, who were adopted as spiritual instructors by the principal chiefs, since which the Kolitas have mostly adopted the Hindoo religion, and rank as pure Sudras; yet both they and their chiefs occasionally revert to their old tenets, and return to the guidance of the unconverted members of the ancient priesthood. The converted Kolitas adhere to Krishna, and have of late been very successful, especially in Assam, where they have not only converted the sovereigns of the country, but also many ignorant tribes of Rabkas, Garrows, and Mech. The lower classes in the north are so extremely indigent, that some years ago it was their custom to dispose of their children for slaves without scruple; and although this traffic has been suppressed, and provisions are cheap compared with other districts, yet the poverty and wretchedness of a great proportion of the population are extreme.

When the Mahomedans conquered this division they appear to have rendered the office of zemindar hereditary. Some of the estates continue to be managed by the raja, some by branches of the family, while others continue to be held by the descendants of different officers, on condition of performing certain duties. In the whole of Cooch Bahar, the maximum of rent fixed by the settlement is much lighter than what the proprietors exact from their tenants, which arises partly from their desire of keeping a low rental lest a new assessment should be made, while they trust for their own profit to private contributions. The high rate of the maximums strengthens their hands, as they can at any time compel a tenant to quit a farm or pay the

maximum, no leases being granted to new settlers, and these only give the tenant a right of perpetual possession according to the regulated assessment. Formerly the raja's family resided at Bykantpoor, where there was little cultivation, scattered among woods, while all the more southerly portion of the principality was overgrown with reeds and bushes, encouraged as a defence against the Mahomedans. On the decay of the Mogul power, Dharma Pal left Bykantpoor, settled at Jelpigory, and began to clear the jungles of the south, which are now cultivated; while the spots among the woods that were formerly cultivated are now neglected, and returning to a state of nature. The rents are very low, probably owing to the vicinity of the Bootan and Nepaulese territories, where there is much waste land, and a large proportion of the tenants are constantly changing from the one to the other. Among the rude tribes the hoe cultivation (which is a marked distinction in this quarter of India marking the stage of civilization) still subsists, and with this implement it is supposed a man and his wife can cultivate as much land as a man with a plough and two oxen, being about five acres.

The reigning prince, in 1809, named Harindra, was said to be the seventeenth in succession of the present family, but the early history of the country is much involved in fable. In 1582, Abul Fazel describes the chief of Cooch as a powerful sovereign, having Assam and Camroop under his subjection, and able to bring into the field 1,000 horse and 100,000 foot. According to the testimony of Mahomedan historians, during the reign of Acber, about A.D. 1582, Lukshmen Narrain, the raja of Cooch Bahar, was the sovereign of a territory bounded on the east by the river Brahmaputra, on the south by Goraghaut, on the west by Tirhoot, and on the north by the mountains of Tibet and Assam. His army they exaggerated to the number of 100,000 infantry, 4,000 cavalry, 700 elephants, and 1,000 war boats. Notwithstanding this enormous military force, he voluntarily became a vassal to the Emperor Acber, which offending his subjects and chief men, they rebelled against him, and compelled him to request assistance from the Mogul governor of Bengal, which was readily granted, as it afforded an opportunity of exploring this region, with a view to its future subjugation. This last event took place in 1661, when it was conquered by Meer Jumla, who in compliment to his sovereign changed the name of its capital to Alumgeer Nugger, which it did not long retain. Mahomedan fanaticism being then in full bloom, he destroyed the Hindoo temples, broke in pieces a celebrated image of Narayan (Vishnu), and converted the son of the raja, who was on bad terms with his father. In every other respect he administered strict justice to his new subjects, and severely punished plunderers and other offenders. Having completed the conquest and settled the tribute of Cooch Bahar (which then comprehended a large tract of country) at ten lacks of rupees annually, he proceeded to attempt the conquest of Assam, where he failed. During these wars the Cooch princes are supposed to have erected the line of fortification along the southern frontier, which still remains; but, like all similar structures, it proved an ineffectual protection.

Along with the rest of Bengal the Mogul rights to this tract of country devolved on the East-India Company in 1765; but was little noticed until 1772, when the Cooch Bahar raja applied to the collector of Rungpoor for assistance against the Bootanners, who had reduced him to the last extremity, and offered through his minister, Nazir Deo, to pay an annual tribute of half his revenue, and to render his country again subordinate to Bengal. In deliberating on this offer, the peace and security of the adjacent British territories were more to be considered than any pecuniary advantage to be derived from the new acquisition, as prior to this period the Rungpoor district had been much

exposed to incursions from Bootan; it became therefore a matter of direct interest to embrace any opportunity that offered of expelling these marauders, and confining them within the limits of their own mountains. Under this impression the proposals of Nazir Deo were agreed to, and Capt. John Jones was ordered to proceed, with four companies of sepoys and two pieces of cannon, which expedition he conducted with much skill and energy, defeating Dorpo Deo, a rebel and emissary of Bootan, and capturing the town of Bahar by assault, thereby greatly intimidating the Bootanners, who fled on all sides to the hills, where in 1773 they were pursued by Capt. Jones, who took from them the fortress of Dellamcotta. The Bootan raja from being the aggressor, now became alarmed for his own safety, and applied to the Teshoo Lama of Tibet, through whose mediation he obtained a peace. In arranging its conditions, great favour was shown to the Bootanners, probably with the view of gaining their friendship, and obtaining commercial advantages, neither of which ever took place.

In 1787 great confusion and rebellion agitated this petty state, which led the Bengal government to institute an inquiry into the causes of these commotions, and also relative to the existing condition of the territory. A commissioner was in consequence deputed in 1789, to take upon himself the exclusive superintendence of the raja's estates, to collect the revenues, pay the annual tribute, and after defraying the current expenditure, retain the surplus for the raja's benefit. The latter, then a minor, was at the same time informed that the British government, in assuming the temporary management of his affairs, did not intend either to increase his tribute, or to deprive him of the rights and privileges guaranteed by the treaty of 1772, the object of their interference being to preserve himself and country from the artifices and peculations of ignorant and designing men. Under this arrangement the Cooch Bahar territories continued until 1801, when the raja having attained his majority, the office of commissioner was abolished, and the transaction of revenue matters committed to the collector of Rungpoor. During the above period strict tranquillity prevailed, the revenues were collected with regularity, and the property of the state so effectually preserved from the rapacity of its own servants, that after defraying the public expenses, civil and religious, on a most liberal scale, a large sum was accumulated for the benefit of the raja and invested in the British funds.

A very different picture was exhibited when the commissioner was withdrawn. During the raja's minority, the government had entertained hopes that, by study and application to business, he would qualify himself for executing the duties of so important a charge, but these expectations were disappointed, for to a natural or acquired imbecility the raja added a most violent and outrageous temper, where he could not be resisted, nor did he ever suffer the miseries of his subjects to interfere with or disturb the low and childish pleasures to which he was addicted. Had the mischief been confined to the raja's own territories, a cold and unfeeling policy might perhaps have suggested, that it was not incumbent on the British government to interpose in the affairs of a state, which had been recognized to a certain degree as independent. The effects, however, of the above evils were felt within the limits of the British districts, banditti and other disturbers of the public peace frequently committing robbery and other outrages, and then seeking a secure asylum for themselves and plunder within the boundaries of Cooch Bahar. Besides this, so far from any surplus revenue being realized, it was with the utmost difficulty the different instalments of the tribute due to Bengal could be liquidated, and the raja himself had scarcely the means of subsistence, while his public officers were amassing fortunes by embezzlement and extortion.

The Bengal government was fully sensible of the evils that were likely to arise from leaving the administration of affairs exclusively to the raja; but was averse, on the principles of good faith, to assume the internal management of the principality without the acquiescence of its chief. An officer was, in consequence, deputed for the purpose of communicating with the raja, and of endeavouring to obtain his consent to the introduction of the Bengal revenue and judicial regulations, with such modifications as local circumstances and the dignity of the raja might suggest; but all his efforts to procure the raja's consent were without avail, and he was in consequence withdrawn. Another was deputed in 1805, with the like bad success, the raja manifesting the utmost repugnance to the proposed arrangements, while his miserable subjects upbraided the British government as participators of his extortions. All interference, however, further than remonstrance, was abstained from until 1813, when the anarchy of this state had attained such a height, that it was no longer possible to go on. As experience had proved that all prospect of reforming the administration through the medium of the collector of Rungpoor was perfectly hopeless, it became indispensably necessary to recreate the office of commissioner, nearly on the footing of 1805. The governor-general also addressed the raja, remonstrating strongly with him on the neglect of his public duties, and of his insulting and contumacious conduct towards the officers appointed to negociate with him. In addition to these acts of insubordination, the raja had the folly to withhold the payment of the customary tribute, and not only to misappropriate the allowance fixed for the family of Nazir Deo, but also to usurp the lands allotted for their residence, and for that of Dewan Deo In these commotions one of the latter's dependants was murdered, when the raja, instead of facilitating the apprehension of the perpetrators, opposed every obstacle to the prosecution of the inquiry.

Whatever doubts may exist regarding the rights mutually understood by the contracting parties to have been conveyed to the British government by the words of the third article of the treaty of 1772, as far as relates to the raja's independence, within the limits of internal jurisdiction, the general tenor of that treaty placed Cooch Bahar in a state of absolute dependence on the British power, and the reservation of a moiety of the revenues for the raja, was subjected to the condition of his continuing firm in his allegiance to the East-India Company. The raja's general conduct having been utterly inconsistent with the duties of subjection and allegiance, he might be considered as having violated his engagements, and consequently forfeited his rights of territorial sovereignty, by disregarding the conditions under which they were recognized; but as it would have been too severe to carry the punishment to extremity, it was determined to limit the interference in the interior administration merely to the degree which might be necessary to preclude the recurrence of any acts of gross outrage or oppression. In furtherance of this object, he was ordered to dismiss his dewan and moonshee, the appointment of the first-mentioned officer being in future subjected to the approval of the governor-general. To the proposal for the introduction of a system of criminal jurisprudence, to be administered in his name but through the agency of the British commissioner, the raja gave a conditional consent.

The amount of tribute paid to the Bengal government in 1814 was 62,722 rupees per annum; but its liquidation could never be procured without the greatest difficulty. In 1818 the arrears amounted to 71,600 rupees remaining due by the raja, who, although fully able to discharge them, was actuated by such a blind confidence in the forbearance of the British government, that he conti-

nually evaded the settlement, until threatened with instant sequestration, when 60,000 rupees of the money was produced; but he still persevered in endeavouring to elude the payment of the remainder. In 1822 the arrears due had again accumulated to 51,735 rupees. The rajas of Cooch Bahar reckon by the era of their ancestor, Viswa Singh, and suppose that he began to reign about A.D. 1509, which is probably earlier than the reality. — (*F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Turner, J. Grant, Stewart, Pierard, &c.*)

Coolies,—See Gujerat Province, Mahy Kaunta, and Baroda.

Coolasghur (*Cailasghar*). — A town in the Carnatic province, eighty-four miles W.S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 45′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E.

Cooloo.—A district in the province of Lahore, which stretches along the north bank of the Sutuleje, from below Koomharsein to a few miles beyond Rampoor, the capital of Bussaher. The natives say it is separated from Chamba by the Pariyat mountains, and is also watered by the Beyah. The aspect of these hills, which descend abruptly from a lofty height, almost immediately under the snowy cliffs, is peculiarly dreary and barren, presenting nothing but craggy precipices and sharp peaks, projecting through the scanty soil that adheres to the rough brown rocks. The only cultivation to be seen is adjacent to the petty forts and villages, enclosed by a wall or hedge; but sheep pasture, in the proper season, is said to be abundant. In 1815 some traffic from Tibet passed through Sultanpoor, then designated as the capital of Cooloo, of which state Raja Bickram Sen was chieftain, but was himself tributary to Runjeet Singh of Lahore. He also had two small barren peaks within the British line east of the Sutuleje, to which, as eventual asylums, he attached a disproportionate importance.—(*Jas. Fraser, Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Cooloo.—A town in the province of Orissa, eighty miles S.E. from Sumbhulpoor; lat. 20° 31′ N., lon. 84° 39′ E. This is a considerable inland mart, the Berar merchants bringing their cotton to Cooloo, from whence they return with a load of salt to the interior.

Coopang.—A town in the island of Timor, situated on a large bay, twelve miles wide by twenty deep, formed by the island of Semao to the south-west, and a point of Timor to the north; lat. 10° 10′ S., lon. 124° 10′ E. This bay is exposed to the westward; but from the beginning of May to the end of October the anchorage is secure, and there is little to apprehend from N.W. winds after the middle of March, or before the middle of November. In the vicinity the upper stone is mostly calcareous, but the basis appears to be argillaceous.

This settlement was formed by the Dutch so early as A.D. 1630; but it never attained any prosperity or importance; in fact, their territory never extended five miles beyond Fort Concordia. During the revolutionary war that terminated in 1801 the communication with Batavia was interrupted, and the town taken by the British, an insurrection having been raised by the half-caste natives, who massacred some of the garrison, expelled the rest, and set fire to the town. Fort Concordia stands on the south side of the bay, and is usually garrisoned by a few Malays commanded by a serjeant-major. A small foreign commerce is carried on with Batavia, but the peculiar traffic of the port is conducted by the Chinese who are settled in the town, and intermingled with the Malays. Vegetables are high-priced and not good; but cocoa-nuts, limes, bananaes and shaddocks are plentiful. The animal food procurable consists of young karabow or buffalo, pigs, kids, poultry, and other articles retailed by the Chinese and Malays. The climate here is very destructive to European constitutions; but it is not

so considered by the Dutch, probably on account of its being comparatively less destructive than Batavia.—(*Capt. Flinders, &c.*)

Coorg (*Codugu*). — An ancient Hindoo principality situated among the western ghauts, between the twelfth and thirteenth degrees of north latitude, and at present partly annexed to the British province of Malabar, and partly comprehended in the Mysore raja's territories. The Coorga country is considered to extend from the Tambacherry pass on the south to the river Hemavutty on the north, and presents a succession of hills and valleys, in many places open, with some scattered trees and shrubs; in others wild and woody, abounding with all sorts of game, wild elephants, and other beasts of the forest. The country from Somawarpet to Markeree, a distance of nineteen miles, is a complete wood, and the mountains in the vicinity of the latter are covered with thick forests, where sandal and other valuable woods are found. Round Markeree the hills form an amphitheatre, where the different roads enter through gateways across an old line and ditch, extending all along the tops of the ridges; a Coorg raja, before the country was subdued by Hyder, having made a hedge and ditch along the whole extent of the eastern boundary of his dominions. A considerable tract beyond this line was reckoned neutral, and still continues desolate. The Cavery has its source in Coorg, and the Toombuddra among the Bababooden hills. These two great streams issuing to the eastward, are obliged by the inclination of the mountains to pursue that course, although much nearer to the western Indian Ocean. The Cavery, after a a circuitous route, finds its way to the bay of Bengal, while the Toombuddra proceeds north-east and joins the Krishna.

The vallies here are cultivated with rice, which this region yields exuberantly, but the quantity of land under tillage is insignificant when compared with the extent of surface. Cattle are abundant, the pasturage being excellent; but the manufactures are almost limited to the blankets they wear, their cotton cloths being imported. Among the hills and forests are some wild tribes, whose complexions are not darker than those of Spaniards or Portuguese, which may be owing to the elevation of their domicile, the shade of their forests, and to the torrents of rain that for so great a portion of the year pour from the cloudy atmosphere.

The Coorgas are a subdivision of the Nair caste, and of martial habits. Rajas of Coorg (named the Vir Rajas) are mentioned by Ferishta as independent princes so early as A.D. 1583, and the family possesses biographical histories of their rajas since 1632. For a long time Hyder attempted in vain to subdue them, until a dispute about the succession arose, when he offered his mediation, and by the destruction of one family and captivity of the other, he got possession of the territory. In the year 1779, Linga, raja of Coorg, died, and Hyder excluded Beer Rajindra, the legal heir, then a minor, confined him in a Mysore fortress, massacred and expelled many of the Coorgas, and partitioned the country into jaghires, among a number of petty Mahomedan leaders. Tippoo had the young raja circumcised, and during his captivity the country was a continued scene of devastation and bloodshed, occasioned by the discontent and insurrection of the people. In 1787 Beer Rajindra made his escape from Periapatam and returned to Coorg, where, after a series of years and many vicissitudes, he succeeded in expelling the invaders, and recovering his hereditary dominions.

From this era the constitution of Coorg may be understood to have commenced on a new foundation, the ancient having been nearly abrogated by the long domination of the Mahomedans, and the expulsion of the legitimate landed proprietors. By his perseverance Beer Rajindra

restored order, and conciliated the affections of the mass of his people. On his decease, in 1808, he left his dominions by will to his daughter Dewa Amajee, then a child, to the prejudice of his brother Linga Raja, and contrary to the ancient usages and customs of the country, as well as to the texts of the sacred writings. According to the latter, the succession should be first the son, and then, if no son, the son's son, and failing him, the brother of the deceased. In addition to this document, no precedent could be found that any female had ever held the reins of the Coorg sovereignty, although in the contiguous and ancient Hindoo principality of Bednore, a female sovereign or ranny had always ruled.

The infant princess was, however, placed on the throne; but in 1810 the Bengal government received a communication from Linga Raja and the Ranny Dewa Amajee, conjointly intimating that in consequence of the voluntary abdication of the latter, Linga Raja had assumed the permanent administration of Coorg. In consequence of this intelligence, measures were taken to ascertain the claim possessed by the Linga Raja to the succession, and also the wishes and sentiments of the chief persons belonging to the principality. The resignation of the young ranny at her tender age could not be considered as spontaneous, and the Linga Raja's assumption of the sovereignty could derive no title from the renunciation of an infant. At the same time the British government could not be considered, by a mere testamentary devise of the late raja, to support an order of succession hostile to the laws, prejudices, and wishes of the people, and under the possible contingency of being obliged to employ a military force in prosecution of the object. The result of the investigation was favourable to the claims of the Linga Raja to Coorg, the inhabitants of which were also inclined to the establishment of his pretensions, which were accordingly acquiesced in by the Bengal presidency, and a despatch addressed to him, announcing the determination of the British government to recognize his title to the sovereignty. A provision of nearly two lacks of pagodas (£80,000), which had been vested in the Company's funds at Madras by the late raja, was made in favour of Dewa Amajee and her sisters; and of four lacks of rupees held by the late raja in the Bombay funds, two were secured for the little ranny and her sisters, as a suitable provision, by the care of the British government. The other two lacks in the Bombay funds appertained to the Soonda Raja and his son.

Like other Nair countries, Coorg possesses few towns, or even villages, of any considerable size and population, the Coorgas preferring their wilds and jungles to the busy hum of man. Periapatam was formerly the capital, but in more recent times the village of Mercara, twenty-five miles south of Poodicherin, has been the principal residence of the raja's family. About 1785 Tippoo built a strong fortress within the limits of the district and called it Jafferabad, but it has long since gone to ruin.—(*A N Col., Public MS Documents, Dirom, F Buchanan, &c*)

COORHUT *(or Choorhut)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, thirty miles E S E from Rewah; lat 24° 29′ N., lon. 81° 47′ E It is governed by a chief named the Row of Choorhut.

COOSERA *(Cusara)*.—A town in the Bahar district, fifty-four miles S.S E. from Patna; lat. 25°6′ N., lon. 85° 47′ E.

COPARA.—A fine village in the province of Bejapoor belonging to the Raja of Satara, about twenty-seven miles N by E. from the town of Satara

COPAUL.—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, about twenty-one miles west from the ancient city of Bijanagur, lat. 15°19′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E. This was reckoned one of

the strongest fortresses in India, and in 1790 resisted the Nizam's army for six months before it capitulated; yet in 1819 it was taken by storm from a rebellious governor, by General Pritzler's detachment, with the loss of only six killed and fifty-one wounded.—(*MSS., &c.*)

Corachie.—This is the modern seaport of Tatta and Sinde, although it does not properly belong to either, being a recent usurpation of the Ameers of Sinde; lat 24°31′ N., lon. 67° 16′ E., fifty-seven miles from the city of Tatta, and E. by S. from Cape Monze.

Coringa (*Caranga*)—A considerable seaport town in the Northern Circars, district of Rajamundry, thirty miles S E. from the town of Rajamundry; lat. 16° 40′ N., lon. 82° 44′ E. Coringa Bay is the only smooth water (except Blackwood's Harbour) on the western side of the Bay of Bengal during the S.W. monsoon, Point Godavery projecting out to the southward breaks the swell. In consequence of this favourable circumstance a wet dock has been formed here, which is the only construction of the kind on the continent between Calcutta and Bombay A bar of mud lies across the entrance, through which ships must be forced. A considerable number of country vessels of small burthen are annually built at this port. A remarkable rise of the ocean and inundation took place here about 1784, which drowned a great many of the inhabitants and destroyed much property.—(*Johnson, &c.*)

Coromandel (*Cholomandala.*)—This coast extends along the west side of the Bay of Bengal, from Point Calymere to the mouth of the Krishna river. The name is properly Cholomandala. In Sanscrit the primitive meaning of this word is orbit or circle, and thence a region or tract of country, and probably it received its name from the Chola dynasty, the ancient sovereigns of Tanjore. In the Madras records, until 1779 it is written Choramandel.

When the northerly (or north-easterly) wind or monsoon prevails on the coast of Coromandel and in the Bay of Bengal, the southerly (or south-westerly) wind reigns on the coast of Malabar; and when the northerly wind blows on the latter, the southerly wind prevails on the former coast. The northerly winds are expected on the coast of Coromandel and in the Bay of Bengal about the middle of October. The periodical change which is followed by the rainy season through India south of the Krishna, is called the great monsoon. It is frequently accompanied by violent hurricanes; nor is serene weather expected until the middle of December, and sometimes storms happen so late as the first of January: the King's and Company's ships are consequently ordered to quit the coast by the 15th of October. The southerly wind sets in about the middle of April, and the early portion of this monsoon is a period of great drought on the Coromandel coast, while partial rains fall on that of Malabar and among the western ghauts.

During the continuance of the hot winds the coast of Coromandel is parched up, resembling a barren wilderness, nothing appearing green except the trees. When the rains fall vegetation is restored, the plants revive, and a beautiful verdure overspreads the country. It is an observation of the natives, confirmed by the experience of many Europeans, that the longer the hot wind blows the healthier are the ensuing months, these winds purifying the air. The Coromandel coast is generally an open roadstead, without harbours, and there is considerable difficulty in landing, on account of the surf, except where proper boats are provided.—(*Wilks, Crawfurd, Lind, Kyd, &c.*)

Corregaum.—A village in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the N.E. side of the Beema river, seventeen miles E.N.E. from Poona; lat. 18° 37′ N., lon. 74° 16′ E. It is composed of a number of houses, with

stone walls round the gardens, and but for the want of water, which can only be had from the river, is very defensible. A detachment of British troops under Captain Staunton, consisting of a detail of the Madras artillery, the second battalion first regiment of Bombay native infantry, and about 300 auxiliary horse, were attacked here on the 31st December 1817 by the Peshwa's army, estimated at 20,000 horse and several thousand infantry, mostly Arabs. A most desperate struggle ensued between this handful of men and Bajerow's whole army, under his personal command, and viewed by him from a height. The action commenced a little before noon, and was not over until nine in the evening, during the whole of which time the British troops remained not only without food, but without water. By the evening all the British officers had been either killed or wounded except three, yet the enemy were driven out of every position in the village they attempted to occupy, and by nine o'clock completely desisted from the attack. The next day was passed under arms, the enemy still hovering about the village; but on the 1st of January 1818 the detachment made good its retreat to Seroor, with both the guns and all the wounded. The discouraging circumstances under which this action was fought, the ground having been just occupied after a long and fatiguing march, and the troops forced to fight without food or water, gave the defence a character of desperate determination scarcely to be equalled in history.—(*Prinsep, Fitzclarence, Public Journals, &c.*)

CORSEE.—A small town in the province of Bejapoor, district of Ryebaugh; lat. 16° 40′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E. This was formerly a Mahomedan town of some note, but latterly, under the Peshwa's government, so much oppressed by the Maharatta Brahmins, that most of the faithful withdrew, although the relics of a celebrated Mahomedan saint, Seraje ud Deen, lie interred only one mile east of the town. The river Krishna runs here in an easterly direction, in a bed about 500 yards from bank to bank. This is one of the towns which during the Maharatta sway enjoyed the privilege of killing beef for sale.—(*Moor, &c.*)

CORUNDOWAR.—A small fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Colapoor, belonging to the Putwurden family, situated at the junction of the Panchgunga river with the Krishna.

COSI RIVER (*Kausiki*).—This river has its source in the Nepaul hills not far from the city of Catmandoo, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction to near Chattra, on the lower range of hills, where it winds more to the south, and descends towards the British district of Purneah, which it enters twenty miles north of Nauthpoor, by a channel two miles wide, but, except in the height of the rains, almost filled with sandbanks and islands, the latter covered with tamarisks and coarse grass. In the cold season most of the space between the temporary islands becomes dry sand: but there are always streams accessible to boats of 400 or 500 maunds. Being near the mountains, the Cosi is very subject to sudden risings and fallings, and in summer the water, even so low as Nauthpoor, retains a considerable degree of coolness. One of its contributary streams, the Arun, is supposed to rise north of the great Himalaya ridge, and to penetrate between its snowy peaks. After entering Bengal, the course of the main trunk of the Cosi is nearly due south, in which direction it flows until it joins the Ganges, having performed a journey of 300 miles.

This river is said to be the daughter of Kusik Raja, the sovereign of Gadhi, who had besides her a son named Viswamitra. This person was a strenuous worshipper of Para Brahma, or the supreme being, and rejected all invocation of the inferior gods, such as Vishnu and Siva. On

this account, and his austerities, he almost attained a power equal to these divinities, and created several sorts of grain now in common use. He also intended to fabricate men of a nature much superior to the poor drivelling creatures who now tread the earth, but, at the solicitation of the demigods, he desisted when he had only proceeded so far as to form the head, from which originated the cocoa-nut, as is proved by its strong resemblance to the human countenance. Kausiki, the daughter, married a Brahmin saint of an irascible disposition, who became incensed against his wife because she bore him a son of a martial inclination; while his father-in-law, the Raja Kusik, excelled in holiness and power. According to the Scanda Puran (which, in geographical matters, is of the highest authority) the saint in consequence prayed to the gods, and had his wife changed into a river, which now flows through Purneah under the name of the Cosi, which is the common name used by the people who inhabit its banks, but in the sacred dialect it is termed Kausiki. Such is its mythological origin; but at present it is known to descend from the lower hills of the northern mountains by three cataracts, or rather violent rapids, it being ascertained that canoes can shoot through the lower cataract.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Cospoor (*Khaspur*).—A town in the province of Cachar, of which it is the modern capital, sixty-four miles east from the town of Silhet in Bengal; lat. 24° 45′ N., lon. 92° 45′ E. This place stands on the banks of the Madhura, a small clear stream that flows from the adjacent mountains. Under Hari Chandra, Cospoor flourished, and possessed brick and wooden houses; but on his death, about 1811, his successor, Raja Govind Chandra, thinking himself safe only in proportion as he approximated to the British provinces, removed his court and cabinet to Doodpatlee, on the banks of the Boorak, about twenty miles south of Cospoor; the latter was in consequence almost deserted, and has since experienced a most rapid decay. In A.D. 1763 Mr. Verelst, afterwards governor-general, undertook a journey eastward from Bengal, and advanced as far as this place: an exertion which none of his successors had sufficient enterprize to imitate.

Cosseahs.—See Silhet.

Cossimbazar.—A considerable town in the province of Bengal, about a mile south from Moorshedabad, of which capital it may be reckoned the port; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 88° 15′ E. This is one of the largest inland trading towns in Bengal, and during the rainy season has a variety and extent of water-carriage, probably not excelled in the world. The Cossimbazar island is perfectly flat, and one bed of sand; but the annual overflow of the river leaves a depôt of mud, which enriches this otherwise barren territory. Besides the tiger and the boar, this insular space abounds with the inferior sorts of game. The hare, deer, partridges, floricans, quail, and a species of ortolan, with a great diversity of birds, far superior in splendour of plumage to those of Europe, are found along this sacred branch of the Ganges; and the aquatic birds of colder climates, such as geese, ducks, divers, and snipes, are also abundant. The town of Cossimbazar has long been famous for its silk manufactures, and is noted for its stockings, which are all wire-knitted, and esteemed the best in Bengal. The quantity of silk consumed here annually by the natives in carpets, satins, and other stuffs, is very great, and a large quantity of the raw article is also exported to Europe, and to almost every quarter of India, this being peculiarly a silk country, probably the next in the world to China.

The river that flows past Cossimbazar is named the Bhagirathi, and is the holiest branch of the Ganges, the others, in Hindoo estimation, not possessing the same sanctity. In the

ancient Hindoo systems the west of the Bhagirathi river was named the Utter-rari, and Dachshim-rari, and the east of the same river Bhagni.—(*Colebrooke, Lord Valentia, Tennant, &c.*)

COSSIMCOTTA.—A small town in the Northern Circars, twenty-eight miles travelling distance W. by S from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 39′ N., lon. 83° 8′ E. To the north of this place there is a military cantonment, where a small detachment is usually stationed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

COSSIPOOR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty-six miles north from Moradabad; lat. 29°11′ N., lon 78°16′ E. This is a place of Hindoo pilgrimage, has several temples, and a very holy, though dirty tank, where the pilgrims bathe. A great trade also passes through this town going north, and some of the inhabitants are wealthy.

COTAMA.—A village in the province of Gujerat, principality of Lunawara, situated about ten miles south from the town of Lunawara.—(*MS., &c.*)

COTAPORT.—An inland village in the Malabar province, division of Cartinaad, fourteen miles S E from Tellicherry; lat. 11° 42′ N., lon 75° 44′ E.

COTTAPATAM.—A town in the Carnatic province, division of Marawa, fifty-two miles south from Tanjore, lat 9° 59′ N., lon. 79° 14′ E.

COTELAH.—A town in the province of Agra, forty-six miles N.N.E. from Jeypoor; lat. 27° 28′ N., lon. 76° 2′ E.

COTIOTE.—A small section of the Malabar province, situated due east of Tellicherry, and comprehending about 312 square miles. The face of the country here, like the rest of Malabar, consists of low hills, separated by narrow vallies adapted for the rice cultivation. Approaching the ghauts these hills rise to a considerable height, and the soil is every where good. The calamities Cotiote suffered at the early stage of its connexion with the British government, were in a great measure owing to its forests, which encouraged the natives to make an ill-judged resistance against the British forces. The quantity of trees, including teak, procurable here in one year, does not exceed 300 or 400, and no metals have been discovered. Wherever there is any long intermission of cultivation, stately forests arise, but the trees are of little value In A.D. 1800 the number of houses in Cotiote was estimated at 4,087. Among the hills and woods there were then several rude tribes; but the whole number of slaves was only estimated at one hundred.—(*F Buchanan, &c*)

COTTACOTTA.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded territories, fifty-six miles N from Cuddapah, lat. 15′ 21′ N, lon. 78° 54′ E.

COITET.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Bahar, ninety miles S by W. from Patna; lat. 24° 21′ N, lon. 84° 40′ E.

COULAN (*or Quilon*).— A seaport town in Travancore, 102 miles N.N W from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 53′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E. This is a place of considerable native trade, cotton, pepper, ginger, cardamoms, and other merchandize being usually stored here, where there is also abundance of excellent fish, tortoises, rice of a good quality, bananas, pine apples, and other fruits. In remote times Quilon was a place of considerable note, and is said to have been built A D. 825. The Christian as well as the Hindoo natives of this part of Malabar, commence their era at the period of its foundation; and it is mentioned by Marco Polo, in A.D. 1295 Alexis Menezes, the first archbishop of Goa, opened here his first conference with the Christians of St. Thomas, when he made them renounce the principles of Nestorius, and embrace the doctrines of the Roman Catholic church, to which they in part continue united. The Brahmins here possess a very ancient temple dedicated to Siva, and

the Catholics muster three congregations. Between Quilon and Cape Comorin there were reckoned, forty years ago, to be seventy-five Catholic congregations scattered over the country.—(*Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

Courchier.—A town in the Nellore district, thirteen miles N by W. from Ongole; lat. 15° 48′ N., lon. 79° 31′ E.

Courtallum.—See Tinnevelly District

Courtinay.—A large village in the Balaghaut ceded territories, district of Bellary, about ten miles travelling distance N.W. from the town of Bellary. This place, though now decayed, still covers a considerable space of ground, contains several temples, and is well fortified with a ditch, glacis, and mud wall.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Coveiong (*covil, a temple*).—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, twenty-two miles south from Madras; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 80° 18′ E. This fort, called by the natives Saadet Bunder, was built by Anwarud Deen Khan, within musket-shot of the sea, near the ruins of another belonging to the Imperial East-India Company of Ostend, whose principal factory was at Covelong. In A.D. 1750 the French got possession of it by stratagem. In 1752 it surrendered to Captain Clive, on condition that the commandant should be allowed to carry away his own effects, which proved to be a great many turkies, and a quantity of snuff, commodities he dealt in. After the capture of Chingleput, the fortifications of Covelong were blown up. The sea-shore here affords many beautiful shells.—(*Orme, Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

Cowdully.—A town in the Salem province and district, forty-eight miles S.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 3′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E.

Cowishar.—A town in Northern Hindostan, within the geographical limits of the Nepaulese dominions, situated on the east side of the Gogra river, here named the Kuranali, seventy-five miles north from Jemlah; lat. 13° 16′ N., lon 81° 5′ E.

Cowl.—See Coel.

Cowl Durga (*Covil Durga*).—A town and fort in the Mysore raja's territories, district of Bednore; lat. 13° 37′ N., lon. 75° 11′ E. Hodalla, which lies in the neighbourhood, was formerly the residence of a family of poligars, who were hereditary flute-players to the sovereigns of Bijanagur.

Covi f.—A small town in the province of Agra, district of Agra, situated on an island formed by the Jumna, close to its right bank, about six miles below Mathura, and immediately opposite to the sacred Hindoo town of Gokul, on the left bank of the river. It is conspicuous from the lofty turrets and pinnacles of its serai and mosques, all constructed of the stone of the country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Coxe's Bazar.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, situated at the mouth of the Nauf river, about nine miles south of Ramoo, and near the southern extremity of the district; lat. 21° 18′ N., lon. 92° 20′ E. This is a high, clear, and open situation, being the termination of what are called the white cliffs. It has a long and open beach to the sea on the south; on the west bounded by the sea; and on the north by the Ramoo plain, and is on the direct road by the sea to Teak Nauf. No jungle approaches the station within half a mile, and excellent water flows from the springs in the cliffs. There is here an elevated and clear spot of ground sufficient to canton five companies of sepoys; and in 1816 a custom-house towards the Arracan frontier was established here. In 1814 the Mugh population alone amounted to 800 huts.—(*Colonel Thomas Morgan, &c.*)

Cranganore (*Corangalur*).—A town on the Malabar coast sixteen miles N. from the town of Cochin; lat. 10° 12′ N., lon. 76° 15′ E. This

town formerly belonged to the Dutch, but as they were unable to defend it against Tippoo, they sold it to the Raja of Travancore, which occasioned the first war with that Mysore sultan, commencing in June 1790. It was taken from the raja and dismantled by M. Lally, Tippoo's general, but the Mysorean troops were driven out in 1791.

The Jews assert that they possessed Cranganore so early as A.D. 490; in 1505 the Portuguese erected a fortress here, of which the Dutch obtained possession in 1763. The diocese of the Roman Catholic bishop of Cranganore extends from Mount Dilly towards Cochin. Most of the inland churches formerly belonging to the Nestorian community are included in it. This see comprehends eighty-nine churches, and is under the domination of Goa.—(*Fra. Paolo, Bruce, Dow, C. Buchanan, &c.*)

CREANG.—A small town in the Malay peninsula near the southernmost extreme of the Queda principality. The surrounding country produces canes and rattans.

CUDDAPAH (*Cripa*).—This is the second large division of the Balaghaut territories, ceded by the Nizam in 1800, under which head further statistical details will be found, the particulars noted here having reference to the western portion of the province. The country from the town of Cuddapah approaching the Krishna is nearly a level, the ascent being rather towards that river. Although the surface generally be considerably elevated above the sea-coast, the heat during the months of April and May is intense, the mountains appearing to glow with fire. The rains set in sooner than in the Mysore, but it happens not unfrequently that the district is visited with a drought, as happened in 1807, when many thousand black cattle perished for want of sustenance. The great monsoon rains occur here as on the Coromandel coast, and during their prevalence the country is nearly impassable, from the softness of the soil. In the months of April and May there are frequent thunder storms: the corruscations are extremely vivid, and the explosions loud. The chief river is the Pennar, and the principal geographical subdivisions,

1. Cuddapah.
2. Sidout.
3. Gandicotta.
4. Cummum.
5. Dupaud.
6. Gurrumcondah.
7. Punganoor.

Throughout this district during the dry and hot season the water is brackish, but while the rains prevail it is sweet and good, and in particular places it has been remarked to continue so throughout the whole year. The well water in the low country, where the black cotton soil abounds, is always hard, on account of its passing through calcareous strata. Soda is mostly found in a red ferruginous soil among the Pennaconda hills and the eastern ranges that bound the district; the spots most productive of this alkali being for a considerable part of the year moist and swampy, known by their barren aspect, and the black colour the mould exhibits in the morning. When purest it is collected by the native washermen and used instead of soap, from which cause it has received the name of washerman's earth. In other tracts it is found mixed with common salt, which last is extracted by the tank diggers, and applied to culinary purposes. Salt works of this description are found all over the Cuddapah district, the quantity in consequence required from the Coromandel coast is insignificant. Saltpetre also abounds, and may be procured by a very simple process. The cocoa-nut palm is not reared, nor is the common palmira often seen, the soil and climate not being adapted to them. Cotton is pretty generally cultivated throughout this district, but being rather a precarious crop,* can only be ventured on by the wealthier class of ryots; there is consequently no redundance for exportation. In 1800 the whole

cultivated dry grain land within the limits of Cuddapah was estimated at 1,600,000 acres.

The diamond mines of Cuddapah lie about seven miles N.E. of the town, on both banks of the Pennar river, which here washes the base of a range of hills expanding in several directions. The perpendicular height of the highest range may be about 1,000 feet above the level of the country, which is not greatly elevated above the sea. They are said to have been worked for several hundred years, and occasionally diamonds of a considerable size have been found; these mines are surrounded by cultivated fields, and appear like heaps of stones and pits half filled with rubbish. The gems are always found, either in alluvial soil, or in rocks of the latest formation; in seeking them, the gravel is washed and spread out, after which the diamonds, generally very small ones, are discovered by the sparkle. The ground is rented by the collector to speculators, who work it on their own account; but when very large diamonds are found, which rarely happens, the government claims one-third of the value. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in Cuddapah amounted to 759,083 pagodas, and the total population, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras government in 1822, was 1,094,460 persons.—(*Heyne, Hodgson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Cuddapah.—The name of this city is sometimes written Kirpa, as well as Cuddapah, but both are corruptions of the Sanscrit word Cripa, which signifies mercy; lat. 14° 32′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E., 507 feet above the level of the sea. It stands on the banks of the Cuddapah river, which has its source in the hills to the south-east of the town, and has springs of fine water along its whole course. The palace where the nabobs of Cuddapah formerly resided is still to be seen in a mud fort close to the pettah, at present converted into a court of justice. Within this fort the prison is also situated, and generally contains from 600 to 700 prisoners, condemned to work in irons for periods of from one to fourteen years, according to the nature of their crimes, which most commonly are burglaries and highway robberies. Among the prisoners are persons of all castes, huddled together without distinction; yet here they follow strictly the precepts of their castes respecting diet, and pay great respect to Brahmin felons, who, however depraved and criminal, are always treated with more lenity than the others by the prison attendants. The untried prisoners and debtors are kept separate, but of the latter description there are very few; indeed, all sorts of felons and debtors are so well provided for, that their condition is envied by most of their acquaintance on the outside of the premises. Sentence of death is usually received with perfect unconcern, and the delinquent generally requests to be indulged with some tobacco and a good curry; these luxuries he appears to enjoy with much satisfaction, and after having finished his meal, washed his mouth, scrubbed his teeth, smoked some tobacco, and gone through some trifling ceremonies, he proceeds to receive the execution of his sentence.

Cuddapah was for many years the capital of an independent Patan state, which survived the destruction of the Deccany kingdoms, and many old Patan families still remain who speak the Hindostany dialect with singular purity. In the adjacent country, large quantities of sugar and jagary are made; but it is not a place of much active commerce. Travelling distance from Madras, 153 miles; from Seringapatam, 220; and from Hyderabad, thirty miles.—(*Heyne, MSS. &c.*)

Cuddalore (*Cudalur*).—A town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic province close to Fort St. David, and sixteen miles south from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 44′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E. The situation of this town is naturally strong, being enclosed between two arms of

the Panaur river, and it would originally have been a more commodious place for the chief British settlement, being to windward of Madras and Pondicherry, and in the vicinity of Tanjore. The streets of Cuddalore are spacious, containing many houses of the better class, and it is altogether one of the most extensive and populous towns in the south of India, The old fort has been long razed to the ground, and the line of the bound hedge, which formerly stretched across the isthmus, can now scarcely be traced. North of the Panaur is a suburb called the New Town, containing some handsome European houses, a large Portuguese church, and other buildings of good appearance. Beyond this, on the border of a fine lawn opening to the sea, and ornamented with avenues of fine trees, is a large structure, formerly the residence of the chief governor of the British settlements on the Coromandel coast, but in 1820 occupied by the collector.

Cuddalore was taken possession of by Col. Coote's army in 1760, and continued subject to the nabob of Arcot until the destruction of Col. Braithwaite's detachment by Tippoo, when it was compelled to surrender at discretion to the combined armies of the French and Hyder, in April 1782. The French greatly strengthened the works, and supplied a powerful garrison under the Marquis de Bussy. In June 1783 Cuddalore was besieged by the British army commanded by General Stuart, and on the 7th the outworks were stormed, after a desperate resistance, in which the assailants lost 942 killed and wounded, of whom 500 were Europeans, the greatest loss of this description, particularly of officers, that has yet been sustained in any action fought by British troops in India. On the 25th June the garrison assaulted the trenches of the besiegers, but were repulsed, with the loss of 600 killed, wounded, and prisoners. In the conflict two battalions of sepoys fought some of the oldest and best French troops with the bayonet, and foiled them at that favourite European weapon. Two days after this bloody sally the announcement of peace arrived. During these scenes the neighbourhood of Cuddalore suffered greatly, and became nearly desolate, the villages having been laid in ruins, and the inhabitants either destroyed or compelled to migrate.—(*Fullarton, Rennell, 5th Report, Bruce, &c*)

CUDDAN.—A small town in the province of Mooltan, subject to the Ameers of Sinde, situated on the route from Hyderabad to Luckput Bunder, and afterwards to Mandavie, on the gulf of Cutch; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 69° 2′ E. Betwixt this place and Luckput Bunder is a plain, over which, in the dry season, there is a good road, but swampy during the rains The country between Meerpoor and Cuddan is little cultivated, being low marshy ground covered with lye bushes; and the stream of the Goonee becomes so narrow and shoal, that it is not navigable further south for boats of any description.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

CUDJWA (*Catchwa*).—A town in the Allahabad province, eleven miles S E. from Korah; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 80° 26′ E.

CULLATOOR (*Calatur*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tinnevelly, 100 miles N E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 5′ N., lon 78° 38′ E.

CULLOOR.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, thirty-seven miles E. by N. from Cummumait; lat. 17° 20′ N., lon. 80° 44′ E.

CULNA (*Khalana*).—A town in the Bengal province, district of Jessore, seventy miles E.N.E. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 89° 32′ E. This was formerly the head-quarters of the Roymungul salt agency.

CULNA (*Khalana*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Burdwan, situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, forty-seven miles N. by W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 13′ N., lon. 88° 21′ E. This is the port of the Burdwan district, and

is a busy populous place. At Amboosh, near Culna, the raja of Burdwan has a large house, built after the native fashion, close to which he has erected a chowk or bazar, on a scale of extent and magnificence very unusual in this part of Hindostan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Culpee.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Hooghly river, thirty-three miles in a straight line below Calcutta; lat. 22° 6′ N., lon. 88° 25′ E. The shores are a bed of mud, and the banks of the river covered close to the water's edge with trees and thick jungle. Opposite to the anchorage of the ships, which lie about half a mile from the shore, is a creek, and at its entrance stands the town of Culpee. The crews of ships lying here suffer dreadfully from its extreme unhealthiness, numbers daily falling sacrifices to the pestilential exhalations from the mud and rotten jungle.—(*Johnson, &c*)

Cumly (*Camala*).—A town and fort in the province of Canara, twenty-five miles south by east from Mangalore. This place stands on a high peninsula in a salt-water lake, separated from the sea by a spot of sand. The country to the north of Cumly formerly belonged to rajas of the Jain religion; but the last of the Buntar Jain rajas was hanged by Tippoo.

Cummuldroog.—A decayed hill-fort in the Mysore, situated on a lofty mountain of naked syenite, at a short distance to the N.E. of Nundydroog.

Cummumait.—A division in the Hyderabad province, of which it occupies the eastern extremity, where it borders on the British district of Rajamundry. It is but indifferently cultivated and thinly inhabited, yet it contains many disorderly characters, who seek refuge among its jungles and fastnesses, from whence they issue in predatory bands, and infest the peaceable cultivators of the adjacent provinces under British jurisdiction. The town of Cummumait, from which the tract derives its name, is situated in lat. 17° 16′ N., lon. 80° 11′ E., fifty-five miles north by west from Condapilly. There are also some considerable villages; but, notwithstanding its long vicinity to the residence of British functionaries, this extensive tract of country (and indeed the Nizam's dominions generally) remains a sort of *terra incognita*.

Cummum.—A hilly subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded territories comprehended in the Cuddapah district, and situated between the fifteenth and sixteenth degrees of north latitude. It contains no river of magnitude, nor any remarkable town except Cummum, the capital, which stands in lat. 15° 37′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E., fifty-six miles north-west from Ongole.

Cumoonah.—A zemindar's mud fort in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, which, in consequence of the refractory conduct of the possessor, was in 1807 besieged by a British force, and an attempt made to carry it by storm; but the assailants were driven back with great slaughter, the loss of men and officers exceeding that sustained in many pitched battles. The garrison, however, as frequently happens in these cases, lost heart during the night, and when the morning arrived it was found they had evacuated.

Cundwah.—A town belonging to Sindia, in the province of Candeish, division of Nemaur, which in 1820 contained 800 houses; lat 21° 53′ N., lon 76° 25′ E, forty miles north from Boorhanpoor. This place stands in an open plain, and is surrounded by a good mud wall about fifteen feet high, and has a large tank to the northward, whence issues a stream that flows to the east. The pergunnah attached to Cundwah comprehends an area of 580 square miles, which in 1820 contained 176 villages; but not more than 139 were inhabited.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Curibum (*Caribhum*).—A town in

the northern circars, forty-two miles north-west from Cicacole; lat. 18° 42′ N., lon. 83° 36′ E.

Curode.—A town in the northern circars, fifty-two miles east by north from Bustar; lat. 19° 38′ N., lon. 83° 16′ E.

Curnoul *(Candanur)*.—A subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded districts, which formerly composed the territory of an independent Patan principality. It is bounded on the north by the Toombuddra and Krishna rivers, in approaching which from the south the country becomes more stony and rocky. Close to the last-mentioned river and along its banks are hills, the more elevated of which were formerly fortified, and considered places of strength. The black cotton soil is the most prevalent, and the face of the country stony with much jungle, and covered with palmira trees At Banaganpilly are diamond mines which were formerly productive. In modern maps this territory is named Ghazypoor.

The chiefs of Curnoul, or as it is also named Kummeer Nuggur, are of an ancient Afghan family, which originally served under the Bejapoor sovereigns, but afterwards held military appointments under the Mogul emperor, Shah Jehan. The jaghire of Curnoul was conferred in A.D. 1651 by Aurengzebe, then governor of the imperial territory in the Deccan, on Khizzer Khan (a lineal ancestor of the present nabob). Prior to this the country formed part of the Bijanagur possessions. Khizzer Khan was assassinated by his son Daoud Khan Punnee, who being slain in battle in 1715, his body was dragged at the tail of an elephant round the city of Boorhanpoor. Leaving no issue, his brothers, Ibrahim Khan and Ali Khan, ruled jointly for six years, and were succeeded by the son of the latter, named Ibrahim Khan, who rebuilt and strengthened the fort of Curnoul, and after a reign of fourteen years was succeeded by his son Alif Khan. This person filled the throne sixteen years, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Himmut Bahadur Khan, all under the authority of the Nizam. In 1750 Himmut Bahadur accompanied Nassir Jung on his expedition to the Carnatic, where, in correspondence with M. Dupleix, he confederated with the nabobs of Cuddapah and Shahnoor, and betrayed the cause of Nassir Jung, who was slain by the Cuddapah chief in the battle of Ginjee. Himmut Behadur being soon after slain in a skirmish, was succeeded by Munawar Khan, the father of the late chief Alif Khan.

Some time after his accession the nizam, Salabut Jung, detached a force to assume the Curnoul territory; but a compromise in money taking place, Munawar Khan was confirmed in the possession of the jaghire, which he quietly occupied until the arrival of Hyder from Mysore, who levied a contribution of one lack of rupees. In 1790 Munawar Khan sent a party of horse, under the command of his third son, Alif Khan, along with the Nizam's army, to join Lord Cornwallis at Seringapatam. On his return the same year Munawar Khan died, after holding the chiefship forty years, and was succeeded, under the sanction of the Nizam, by Alif Khan, who took advantage of the absence of his two elder brothers to seize the jaghire, in the possession of which he subsequently maintained himself. On the transfer of the country in 1800, the rights of sovereignty exercised by the soubadar of the Deccan became vested in the British government; and these feudal obligations were observed by the Nabob with great accuracy and precision. His administration in other respects, however, appear to have been defective, for in 1803 his territories exhibited a most woeful picture of desolation and misrule.

The soil of Curnoul is in general a rich black mould, but at the above date a large proportion had returned to a state of nature, and was overspread with weeds and jungle. Many of these evils arose from the subdivision of the country into a number of

petty jaghires, assigned by anticipation to the Nabob's creditors, and also from the vexatious management of the land under the Nabob's own superintendence, which had reduced the principal revenue from twenty to ten lacks of rupees per annum. In 1823 the whole Curnoul country contained 636 villages; the duties on consumption and merchandize to 1,13,623 rupees; spirituous liquors to 44,000; and the pilgrim tax of the temple of Parvati to 18,000 rupees. The administration of justice, also, was so wholly neglected, that the Patans perpetrated the greatest enormities with impunity; and such was the inveteracy of the hatred subsisting between the heir-apparent and his father, that it was reported each of them employed persons to offer up prayers for the destruction of the other.

The chiefship having been held for 150 years by a tenure almost independent, the British government long withheld its interference; but at length affairs attained such a pitch of anarchy, that its interposition became indispensable to maintain the legitimate succession, and restrain the excesses of the Nabob's troops, a mutinous ill-paid rabble. On the death of Alif Khan, in 1815, the throne was usurped by Muzuffer Khan, his youngest son; who was expelled by a detachment of Madras troops, and Munawar Khan, the lawful heir, substituted.—(*Chaplin*, *Marriott*, *Orme*, *Fifth Report*, *Rennell*, *&c.*)

Curnoul.—The capital of the preceding principality, situated on the south side of the Toombuddra; lat. 15° 44′ N., lon. 78° 2′ E. The fort is protected by the river Henday (in December almost dry), and the Toombuddra, with a width of from 700 to 800 yards on all sides, while the western side is strongly fortified, three of the bastions being fifty feet high, and covered to the parapets of the curtain by a steep glacis. The interior is almost entirely covered with stone and mud houses, except along the western face, in 1816 amounting to 1,338, of which 312 were inhabited, 100 unoccupied, and the remainder abandoned and falling to pieces. Towards the south of the fort is the pettah, which is of considerable extent and contains a numerous population. In this, their Deccany metropolis, the Patans exhibit their ancient manners and fanaticisms in considerable perfection, as they make a merit of being ignorant of every thing except horsemanship and the use of arms, regarding all other acquirements as effeminate. The late nabob, Alif Khan, not unfrequently visited the shrine of Miskeen Shah, the ancient spiritual director of his family. On these occasions, he walked in procession barefoot from the fort to the mausoleum, distant one mile, carrying on his shoulders a leather bag filled with sherbet, which he distributed to the mob of religious mendicants and ragamuffins, who followed him with shouts of approbation.

The fortress of Curnoul had been given in jaghire to the ancestors of the present Nabob, and from its great strength, natural and artificial, had never since that time been taken by any native power. Hyder and Tippoo, in the zenith of their glory, were content to levy a tribute by temporary incursions, but never attempted to assail the fort. This circumstance had given Muzuffer Khan (who usurped the principality in 1815) an idea that it was impregnable, and its garrison of all descriptions amounted to 4,000 men. It was besieged in form by a British detachment; the batteries were opened on the 14th December 1815, and next day it surrendered at discretion, without the loss of a man to the assailants. This early capture was attributed to the effect of the bombs among the horse, amounting to about 600, the personal property of the chiefs, who, owing to the precautions taken, and to the Toombuddra's being unfordable, could not make their escape. Travelling distance from Hyderabad 127 miles; from Madras 279, and from Seringapatam 279 miles.—(*Col. Marriott*, *Col. Thompson*, *Orme*, *Rennell*, *&c.*)

Currah (*Khara*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the S.W. side of the Ganges, forty-five miles N.W. from Allahabad; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 81° 16′ E. The banks of the Ganges here are unusually high and bold, and the site of the ancient city is a tissue of ravines, strewed over with Mussulmaun tombs and heaps of ruins, interspersed with the scattered buildings of the modern town, which still contains a considerable population. The fort stands on the highest part of the bank, and has been a noble piece of masonry. A gateway, and part of the walls, built of enormous blocks of solid freestone, are still in existence In 1582, when Abul Fazel compiled his statistical description of Hindostan, a small circar was attached to Currah, but it has long since merged into the surrounding British districts. Currah owes its fame and stately buildings to a celebrated Mahomedan saint named Sheikh Cumaul, who with his son and several of his disciples lies buried here. In 1823 his own tomb was in tolerable repair, but most of the others were gone to ruin

The country between the Ganges and the Goomty, from Currah to Benares, on the east side, abounds with sujee muttee, a species of earth impregnated with alkali, from one to three inches thick, which is pared off at the conclusion of the rainy season, and sold to the soap manufacturers at Allahabad and Benares.—(*Fullarton, Rennell, &c.*)

Currode.—A populous town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda river, about eighteen miles from Surat; lat. 21° 12′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. In 1817 this town and the pergunnah attached, valued at 65,000 rupees annual revenue, were received from the Guicowar in exchange for the division of Bejapoor.

Curruckdeah.—A town and zemindary in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, 100 miles S.E. from Patna; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 86° 13′ E.

Curruckpoor (*Kharakpur*).—A town and zemindary in the province of Bahar, district of Boglipoor, eighteen miles south from Monghir; lat. 25° 8′ N., lon. 86° 35′ E. Owing to the natural strength of the country, the Curruckpoor chiefs formerly possessed considerable power, and when at variance with the government used to retire to the narrow vallies among the hills, where they could not be pursued by Mogul horsemen.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Currybarry (*Carivati*).—A large and jungly zemindary east of the Ganges, long attached to Bengal, but not strictly within its geographical limits. It consists of lands on the east side of the Brahmaputra, originally dismembered from the Garrow territories, and it is still almost surrounded by the hills and jungles inhabited by that people, into the defiles of which no regular troops can penetrate. Including the estate of Mechpara, this tract of country stretches from north to south over a space nearly sixty-seven miles in length by twenty-three in breadth. Within the last twenty years it has been greatly infested by the incursions of the Garrows, whose aggressions were probably first occasioned by the frauds and exactions practised on them by the zemindar, the resumption of the sayer or variable imposts, not having originally extended to this quarter. In 1813 an arrangement was effected for the abolition of these duties, to suppress the extortions to which their existence subjected the Garrows. According to the accounts produced for the adjustment of this claim, the zemindar's net receipts on account of these duties amounted to 3,627 rupees per annum, while the whole land rent paid to government for the pergunnah was only 3,062 rupees, so that after relinquishing the total revenue accruing to government, a balance of 565 rupees remained annually payable to the proprietor out of the public treasury. In 1812 the Bengal presidency endeavoured to purchase this estate: but, although nearly in a

state of nature, the proprietor demanded 120,000 rupees. In a tract of such dimensions, and so remotely situated, the difficulty and expense of supporting a police establishment is so great, that were it not opposed by political considerations, it would be preferable to renounce the sovereignty altogether.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

CURSALEE.—A village in northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, seventy-five miles N N.W. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 57′ N., lon. 78° 21′ E. This place stands on the foot of the Jumnoutri or Bunderpooch mountain, three miles from Jumnoutri, to which it is the nearest village; and in 1817 contained twenty-five substantial houses. By the sides of the Imri and Jumna are several spots of flat ground, on which the inhabitants raise grain enough for their subsistence, although snow falls to the end of April, and covers the neighbouring peaks at all seasons.—(*Capt. Hodgson, Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

CUSTEE (*Kushti*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajeshahy, fifty-two miles E.S.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 89° 3′ E. This is the port of Comercolly, and during the rainy season there is a passage past Custee for boats to the Hooghly river.

CUTAKI.—A small town in the province of Canara, situated above the western ghauts; lat. 14° 52′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E. The inhabitants of this neighbourhood are mostly Haiga Brahmins, a very industrious class of men, who perform all agricultural labours with their own hands.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

CUTCH GUNDAVA.—A large division of Baloochistan, situated principally between the 27th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it has the province of Sewistan; on the south that of Sinde; to the west it has the Brahooick mountains, and to the east a desert tract that separates it from the river Indus. The utmost length from north to south may be estimated at 120 miles; and in breadth the habitable part, at little more than sixty miles.

The chief town in this tract is Gundava, which is not so large as Kelat, but built with greater regularity, and kept in better order. The khan of Kelat, with most of his chiefs, resorts here in winter to escape the intense cold of the mountains. Gundava is surrounded with a mud wall, over the gates of which, leading to Kelat, Corachie, and Shikarpoor, some small swivels are mounted. The next towns in rank are Dhader, Bhag, and Lheree, each containing from 1,000 to 1,500 houses, surrounded by mud walls and bastions perforated with loop-holes. The plains contain many villages. The population of Cutch Gundava consists mostly of Juts, a people whose manners, appearance, and customs indicate them to have been originally Hindoos, subsequently converted to the Mahomedan religion. They reside in permanent villages, and cultivate the adjacent soil, the rent of which they pay to their Baloochy and Brahooee chieftains. There are a few Hindoos settled in Gundava, and in the smaller towns and villages, who carry on a trade with the cultivators by barter, and afterwards transport the grain and other productions to Mekran, Corachie, and Sonmeany. The land is rich and loamy; but it is a remarkable fact that rice will not grow in this province, although it produces luxuriant crops of every other description. It rains in June, July, and August, and also a little in the spring months. The simoom, or pestilential wind, blows here during the hot months, and is very destructive even to the natives.—(*Pottinger, &c.*)

CUTCH.

(*Cach'ha, a morass.*)

This province is principally situated between the twenty-third and twenty-fifth degrees of north latitude, and consists of two portions; one an immense salt morass named the Runn, and described separately; the other

an irregular hilly tract, completely insulated by the Runn and the sea. On the west, the easternmost branch of the Indus and a barren waste divide Cutch from Sinde; on the east is the gulf of Cutch and the Runn; on the north is the sandy desert; and on the south the Indian ocean In length it may be estimated at 160 miles from east to west, and, including the Runn, at ninety-five from north to south.

During the rainy season Cutch is wholly insulated by water, and during the fair season by a desert space from four to sixty miles in breadth. While the south-west monsoon prevails the northern frontier is entirely covered with water, generally salt, and no where quite sweet. When the monsoon abates the waters retire, and leave a morass which gradually dries up and yields good pasture The principal divisions of Cutch on the west are, 1st. Ubrassa, and 2d Gurrah; on the north Pawur and Puchum; on the sea-coast Kanthi; and on the east Wagur

Almost the whole face of the country near the hills is covered with volcanic matter (a rare substance in Hindostan), the rocks appear to have been split by the action of fire, and their vicinity abounds with specimens of metallic scoria. Through the centre of the province from east to west there is a range of moderate sized mountains named the Lakhi, which divides it nearly into two equal parts. This chain is a continuous mass of rock, destitute of soil and water; for although many torrents descend while the monsoon lasts, they entirely fail with the periodical rains. The most remarkable elevations are the mountains named Nunow, or Chigo, and a remarkably flat hill named Warra The arable portion of Cutch consists mostly of vallies between the two ridges of mountains, and other inferior hills, and of the plain stretching from the sea-coast, occasionally interspersed with detached hills. Close to the beach is a high bank of sand, which extends the whole way from the Indus to the gulf of Cutch.

There are not any rivers in Cutch with perennial streams, but many torrents which leave their channels nearly dry when the rains cease. Of these some have springs in their beds, which appear, disappear, and re-appear at certain spots before the channel terminates at the sea-coast, and throughout all Cutch the streams appear to diverge from the centre. Those north of the Lakhi chain flow in that direction until they reach the Bunnee morass; those on the south flow towards the sea; but the whole are unfortunately so brackish, that in the hot season even the cattle reject it Wells, however, are numerous, and usually afford good water by digging thirty feet under ground The earthquake of 1819 affected, in a remarkable degree, the eastern, and almost deserted channel of the Indus, which it refilled and deepened.

The general soil of the province is a light clay covered to the depth of about five inches with a coarse sand; further down white and yellow clay are found, and beneath a stratum of rock, which being pierced, excellent water is reached. Throughout Wagur the soil is generally more loamy. Cutch may be described as almost destitute of wood. The common Neem, peepul, and babool are met with occasionally about villages; the tamarind, banyan, and mangoe are rare, and the cocoa-nut reared with difficulty even on the sea-coast. Date trees are not uncommon, and yield fruit of a good quality The impregnation of the female tree by the pollen of the male has been practised from time immemorial. Iron ore is found every where, and a species of wood-coal of a tolerably good quality, about twenty feet below the surface. Bituminous earths and ligneous petrifactions also abound. Eighteen miles east of Luckputbunder, near the village of Mhur, there is said to be an extinct volcano, and from another hill in the same vicinity there issues a fountain holding alum strongly in solution, monopolized by the Cutch government.

As Cutch does not produce grain sufficient for its own consumption,

much is imported from Gujerat, Malabar, and Sinde, in return for which cotton is principally exported. The Cutch horse has long been known and purchased by Europeans; the oxen are of a very inferior description, but goats are much esteemed. On the skirts of the Runn and desert the wild ass is met with. It is naturally an inhabitant of the salt wastes, but in the cold season penetrates to the cultivated country, where it causes much damage. It is thirteen hands high, has a back, neck, and belly of a light brown colour, with a dark stripe down the ridge of the back; long ears like the domestic ass, but with a more melodious bray, and stronger limbs. His general food is the saline grasses of the desert, and brackish water; yet he is never seen in a bad condition. The flesh is said to be tolerable eating, but is held by the natives in great abhorrence

The principal towns of Cutch are Bhooj, Mandavia, Luckputbunder, Moondra, Anjar, Koteser, Nangercha, Kotara, Roha, Thera, Sandhan, Kyra, Mothara, Rowpoor, Adooi, Wandia, and Arrysir. The Cutch pilots and mariners are noted for their skill, and claim the merit of having first instructed the Arabs in navigation and ship-building, yet they still use the cross staff, and keep their dead reckoning as in the days of Vasco de Gama, and perhaps, of King Solomon. The principal seaport is Mandavie, from whence about 30,000 candies of cotton are exported, besides ghee and oil, in dhinghies or coasting vessels from 25 to 220 tons, and since the suppression of piracy this commerce has considerably increased.

In ancient times the province of Cutch appears to have been occupied by pastoral tribes, for the Koombies, or cultivators, do not appear at any time to have formed an essential portion of the community; and the Chowras, although formerly the governing class, are now extinct. The modern Jharejahs are a branch of the great Sinde Summa stock, and assumed the title of Jharejah to distinguish the progeny of a celebrated chief named Jharra, whose fa[illegible] hether Hindoo or Mahomedan, is still a matter of controversy among the Cutchies. The Jharejahs having established their independence, their chief took the title of Jam, and held it until about the middle of Acber's reign, when Khengar, who had been expelled, was reinstated by the Sultan of Gujerat. The reigning Row in 1818 was the eleventh in descent from Khengar. A Cutch Jharejah is half a Mahomedan, for he believes in the Koran, worships Mahomedan saints, and abstains from forbidden food. The Mahomedan tribes, mostly of Sindean origin, are military or pastoral; but the Meyanna, under various appellations, are professionally robbers and assassins.

The other division of Jharejahs are Hindoos, as they preserve the lock of hair on their heads, do not undergo circumcision, abstain from the flesh of cattle, and adore any thing in the shape of an image. Both classes are a most ignorant, indolent race, addicted to strong and fiery liquors, of which they drink such quantities as would destroy a European. Their wives, all procured from other tribes, on the contrary are active jealous and intriguing, holding in contempt their drunken and imbecile husbands. Female infanticide is universally practised. Its date or commencement remains wholly unknown; yet such is the preposterous pride of a modern Jharejah, that they consider it a loss of character should their daughter wed any man whatever. In 1818, Capt. Macmurdo was of opinion that the total number of female Jharejahs then alive in the whole province was somewhere about thirty; the whole number of the Jharejah tribe was then estimated at about 12,000 persons. Even the Mahomedans of Jharejah descent assume the privilege of destroying their daughters.

The Bhattias are a Hindoo Vishnuvite sect of Sindian origin, who worship a debauched opium-eating Brahmin named Gossenjee Maharaje, whose privileges with the females are unlimited. The Bhattias are, notwithstanding, skilful and industrious

merchants, who pursue wealth over Arabia and the west of India, leaving the propagation of their families to such members of their community as choose to take the trouble. Brahmins, both genuine and spurious, are met with in Cutch. Charons, Bhatts, and other tragalla wara (castes that commit suicide) are numerous. Of the total population, probably one-half are Mahomedans. Taken in the aggregate, the Cutchies present a disgusting picture of vice, debauchery, and beastliness. They are treacherous to a proverb, and it is a common saying, that if a saint were to drink the water of Cutch, he would instantaneously change his nature. The language of Cutch is a dialect of the Sanscrit, of which many words are retained in purity; but it has no peculiar written character, and is much mixed with Sindy and Gujeratty. A translation of the Lord's Prayer into this dialect, was found to contain twenty-four words out of thirty-two radically the same as the Hindostany and Bengalese specimens. The Gujeratty is here the language of business, and its character of correspondence.

Cutch is mentioned by Abul Fazel, in 1582, as an independent state, but the power of this principality appears to have been at the highest about the middle of the eighteenth century, when Row Dasul is said to have held garrisons in Sinde, Parkur, and Cattywar, which were lost by Row Lacka, who succeeded in A.D. 1751. Row Gore came next, and anarchy prevailed till his death in 1778, when he was succeeded by Raydhun (the father of the late Row Bharmuljee), who became deranged; and Futteh Mahomed, the military commandant, gained the ascendant, and in 1792, expelled Dhosul Rain, but was in his turn, in 1802, ejected by Bhyjee Bawa, brother to Row Raydhun, when he returned to Anjar. All these revolutions (another of which reinstated Futteh Mahomed in Bhooj, which he governed until 1813) were effected by the mercenary troops, consisting of Arabs, Sindies, and Cutch Mahomedans, the Jharejahs appearing to take little interest in the struggle. Row Bharmuljee then took the lead; but habits of intoxication soon deranged his intellects, and would have precipitated him from the throne, had not the British government been compelled to interfere at that juncture to repress the banditti that issued from the Cutch territories, and laid waste the neighbouring provinces.

The present Row (a minor) was elected under the patronage of the British government, and the political agent at Bhooj may be reckoned the first member of the regency. In 1821 the national troops consisted of 500 horse and 2,000 militia, besides the contingents of the Jharejahs, which if all collected might approach 20,000 men. The number of chiefs at that date was about 200, and the whole number of their tribe was guessed at from 10,000 to 12,000 persons. The other inhabitants of Cutch have been estimated at half a million, of which more than one-third are Mahomedans (mostly Hindoo converts), the remainder Hindoos of the pacific castes. The whole revenue of Cutch does not exceed sixteen lacks of rupees per annum, of which rather more than one-half belongs to the Row; the remainder being assigned to different branches of his family. The Row's ordinary jurisdiction is confined to his own demesne, each Jharejah chief exercising unlimited authority within his own lands. The Row can summon them all to his standard, but must pay them: their annual revenue varies from 100 to 30,000 rupees each.

Cutch has at all times been dependent on Sinde for a large portion of its subsistence, for it is not fertile, water being scarce and often salt, the soil either rocky or sandy, and the extent cultivated unequal to the support of its own scanty population. It is notwithstanding, at the present period, in as flourishing a condition as it has ever been, in defiance of the devastations caused by the earthquake of 1819, which nearly destroyed Bhooj, greatly injured Anjar, Mandavee and Moondra, and overturned many of the Jharejah forts. This prin-

cipality escaped the ravages of the Mahrattas, twice repelled invasions from Sinde, and may be said to have remained unconquered until 1819, when Bhooj was taken by Sir William Keir's army by escalade in the course of a few hours, and has ever since contained a British garrison. The independence maintained by Cutch through a series of centuries, although placed between powerful empires, is a proof that it was known to contain nothing to gratify ambition, or to compensate for the expense of its conquest, which would be aggravated by the time necessary for the reduction of the innumerable little fortresses with which it is studded. On this account it was to be wished that it could have remained a barrier between the British possessions and those of the Ameers of Sinde, but Providence decreed otherwise, for of all the British alliances this is the most intimate, complicated, and difficult to dissolve.—(*Macmurdo, Elphinstone, Col. A. Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Cutchubarry (*Cachabari*).—A small town in Bootan under the jurisdiction of the subah or governor of Cherang, a place four days' journey from Cutchubarry, to which station this functionary descends during the cold season. The town of Cutchubarry is said to be a mere collection of miserable huts, and the surrounding country, with the exception of a few detached spots, covered with jungle and abandoned to the wild animals; lat. 26° 42′ N., lon. 90° 10′ E., forty-one miles north from Rangamatty.

Cutchwara.—See Kutchwara.

Cuttack (*Catac*).—A large district in the province of Orissa, extending from the frontiers of Ganjam to the river Subunreeka, 180 miles, with an average breadth from the sea inland of 110 miles. But the territory of Cuttack Proper is more limited, being principally comprised between the river Sollundee, with an undefined boundary to the west. What follows, plicable to the district generally, and in its greatest dimensions, in which sense it is bounded on the N.E. by Bengal; on the S.W. by the northern circars; on the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west various petty native states, formerly tributary to the Nagpoor Maharattas. At present Cuttack may be divided into three regions: first, the marshy Delta; second, the Mogulbundy or central parallel; and thirdly the hilly region or Rajwara; the whole comprehending an area of about 9,000 square miles.

The aspect of the country on the sea-coast, and to the westward for about twenty miles, is low, covered with wood, and totally inundated by the sea at spring tides, and into this stoneless expanse of swamp and forest the numerous rivers from the interior discharge their waters, through many channels, resembling in fact, although not in figure, the Deltas of Bengal and Egypt. About twenty miles from the shore the country rises considerably, with a dry and fertile soil, forming the Mogulbundy; and about twenty miles further inland it swells into hills, mostly covered with trees, some of a resinous nature, and others valuable for the purposes of cabinet work and dyeing. The wood produced on the sea-coast is chiefly the soondry, from which wood-oil is extracted, and the janool. The whole of these forests are much infested by wild beasts, especially leopards, which during the marches of the British troops, in 1803, devoured many of the sentinels.

The third or hilly region of Cuttack reaches as far west as Gundwana (in breadth probably 100 miles, and from Midnapoor to Goomsur at least 200 in length), is partitioned among sixteen Khetri or Khandait zemindars, who have been recognized by the British government as tributary rajaships, subdivided into many petty dependent estates held by hereditary officers. Along the base of the hills are twelve more khandaities, held by a similar class, some of whom pay a light tribute, but are subject to the British laws and regulations, while

rate. The greatest height of the hills seen from the Mogulbundy may be about 2,000 feet; their general elevation varies from 300 to 1,200 feet; further inland they are more elevated and regular. They are chiefly of granite formation resembling sandstone, and containing great quantities of imperfectly formed ill-looking garnets The whole of this hilly region furnishes a great variety of valuable and curious minerals, and iron is extensively diffused on the estates of Dhenkanal, Augol and Mohurbunje.

Cuttack is watered by innumerable streams which swell into rivers of magnitude during the rains, but few of them have any current throughout the year. The principal are the Mahanuddy and its numberless branches, the Brahminy, the Byturini, the Solandy, Kausbans, Burabalang, and the Subanreeka. The embankments or bunds are solid mounds of earth well turfed on each side; the principal ones measure from forty to fifty and sixty feet in breadth, and from eight to sixteen in height.

The periodical rains do not commence here so early as in Bengal, and are light in comparison until September, when the rivers rise and overflow their banks; in November the clouds are dispersed and the weather serene. The thermometer at any season of the year is seldom below 60°. In February and part of March dense mists are frequent in the morning, continuing until near noon, and followed by clear evenings and nights Hot winds prevail in April, May, and June, when the summer heats are very oppressive, especially in tents and temporary erections; but this burning season is occasionally refreshed by tremendous storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. The Cuttack district is still but imperfectly explored, but what is known exhibits a great variety of produce and soil. A valuable manufacture of salt, remarkable for its whiteness and purity, and yielding a revenue of above eighteen lacks of rupees per annum, is carried on along the whole margin of the bay. Further inland rice of different qualities is raised, with many other varieties of grain, pulse, aromatic roots, spices, dyeing drugs, and sugar-cane; and in the hilly tracts Indian corn and wheat. These hills contain several kinds of granite, and also a species of schistus, from which good slates might be made. In some parts iron ore is found, and in others gold dust is collected from the beds of the mountain torrents. When the rivers are filled by the periodical rains, many kinds of valuable timber, including teak, are floated down; but the forests are singularly deleterious, and can only be explored during the months of April and May, when the exhalations, and consequential forest ague, are least noxious. The banks of the rivers are extremely picturesque, and their waters, as well as those of the adjacent sea, abound with fish. Both the flat country and the hills swarm with every species of wild beasts, including many carnivorous and ferocious animals, besides a plentiful assortment of snakes, vermin, and reptiles, with and without stings, fanged and unfanged, innocent and poisonous.

The only collection of houses in this district deserving the name of towns are Cuttack, Balasore, and Juggernauth; the chiefs, cusbahs, or head villages are Buddruck, Soro, Kindrapuri, Asseragsar, Huripoor, and Pipley The Rajwarra or hilly region, scarcely contains one respectable village The Mogulbundy is divided into 150 pergunnahs and 2,361 estates of individuals, which, although highly cultivated, possess but an indifferent soil. Rice is the principal article of food, and next to it the palma christi, or castor-oil plant, the oil of which the natives certainly use in their cookery. Gardens (notwithstanding what Abul Fazel says to the contrary) thrive so ill in Cuttack, that even the efforts of European residents have proved unsuccessful, and all the domestic animals are of a very inferior description.

Under the ancient Hindoo government it is probable the raja and

priests of Juggernauth had great influence; but the territory appears to have been always much partitioned among petty native chiefs subordinate to no regular head. It was invaded at an early period by the Mahomedans, but never reduced to subjection until conquered by the Maharattas in 1738; nor even then could it be said to be subjugated according to the European sense of the word. With them, however, it remained until 1803, when it was conquered by the British after a feeble resistance.

Subsequent to the expulsion of the Maharattas considerable tracts of land remained to be settled, appertaining to tributary rajas, who professed submission but tendered no tribute Among these was the Juggernauth, or Khoordah Raja (Muckund Deo, a boy of eighteen), whose claims being resisted, laid waste the adjoining country with fire and sword. A British army was in consequence collected, which, after a variety of operations in a most impervious and difficult country, aggravated by the sanctity of the raja's sacerdotal character, dispersed his army, took Khoordalghur, and at length (in 1804) captured his sacred person, which was conveyed into camp, while the inhabitants of the adjacent districts came forth and prostrated themselves before him in humble adoration. The British government then proceeded to investigate the condition of their new acquisitions, which were found to be distinguished from those of Bengal by peculiar circumstances, and more especially the unsettled state of the land revenue; the celebrated temple of Juggernauth; the tributary chiefs, and the extensive scale on which the river embankments were maintained.

The eighteen police stations of the Mogulbundy, including the Rajwarra estates of Aul, Kunka, Kujang, Herespoor, Marichpoor, and Bishenpoor, with the whole Killajat chiefships, in 1822 contained 11,915 villages and hamlets, and 243,273 houses, which at the average rate of five to a house would give

would give	1,216,365
Town of Cuttack	40,000
Juggernauth	30,000
Balasore	10,000
Total	1,296,365

persons, on an area of 9,000 square miles, or about 135 per square mile.

Revenues.

Land assessment for the provincial year 1821-22, Mogulbundy Rs.	12,64,370
Khoordah	61,169
The Rajwarra, or division occupied by the feudal chiefs; fixed tribute of thirty-one khandaities, or military zemindars, styled rajas, and probably not more than one in ten of the actual net produce	1,20,411
Total ...... Rs.	14,45,950

The revenue derived from the salt monopoly exceeds the total amount of the land rents paid to the state, and is entirely the creation of the British government. The salt sold within the district yields a net return of three lacks, and the quantity annually exported to Calcutta and there publicly sold realizes about fifteen lacks. Under the heads of customs, variable imposts, pilgrim tax, &c., a further net revenue of one lack per annum is obtained, so that the value of Cuttack, after deducting the expenses of management, may be estimated at thirty lacks of rupees per annum.

The tributary estates or zemindaries, in number twenty-nine, and all of large dimensions, and some almost provinces, yielded, in 1813, only 118,687 rupees to the British government; the supposed surplus of clear profit remaining to the landholders was estimated at 525,250 rupees, a mere trifle considering the immense space from which it is derived. All these tributary zemindars assume the title of raja in their respective territories, and admit each other's claim to that dignity They

also exhibit the insignia, go abroad with the retinue, and observe the forms and state of independent princes, according as their income suffices to cover the expenditure consequent on this assumption. Some of the principal zemindars, to the number of sixteen, are at present exempted from the operation of the British regulations, the remaining thirteen are within the jurisdiction of the laws.

A great outlay is annually necessary in Cuttack for the purpose of keeping the embankments in good order, which in 1814 amounted to 40,514 rupees. Some of the principal embankments, more especially that at the town of Cuttack, are indispensable; but the utility of the inferior ones is by no means equivalent to the disbursements they involve. More than one-fourth of the circulation of the district is carried on by cowries; copper, one-tenth; gold, one-fortieth; and silver three-fifths. Formerly the revenue was calculated in cowries, and annual importations of these shells are still made from the Maldives in return for grain. The pilgrims bring a great deal of bullion, but much also is sent to Calcutta. In 1814 the gross tax on pilgrims to Juggernauth produced 170,000 rupees, but this is not all clear gain, more than half being expended on the current expenses of the temple and its establishment.

In A.D. 1817 the tranquility of Cuttack was greatly disturbed by an insurrection of the Pykes (the ancient militia of the country), instigated by the Khoordah Raja and his minister Juggoobundoo, who, although defeated in every encounter, were enabled by the local difficulties of access, to carry on a protracted warfare for almost two years. These commotions were also in part ascribable to the too hasty introduction of the British revenue and judicial system among a people in no respect prepared for its reception, and notwithstanding the insignificance of the insurgents, and their total destitution of military resources, the loss, from the climate, of men and officers in this raggamuffin war, was enormous and irretrievable. — (*Stirling, J. B. Blunt, Richardson, Public MS. Documents, the Marquis of Hastings, Fullarton, &c.*)

CUTTACK.—The capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 20° 27′ N., lon. 86° 5′ E., 251 miles travelling distance from Calcutta. This town is built on a tongue of land from whence the hilly country is visible, washed by two branches of the Mahanuddy river, which diverge about three miles to the westward of the city, and in the rainy season insulate it At this time, near the city, the Mahanuddy is two miles from bank to bank, but during the dry season is fordable with less than three feet of water. At this station there are large and solid embankments, mostly faced with cut stone, having a descent of steps to the river, which are essential for the preservation of the town and military cantonments. During the heavy rains of 1817 the waters of the Cajori rose in one night eighteen feet, as ascertained by careful measurement. This immense volume, about one mile and a half broad and from thirty to forty feet deep, over-topped the general level of the town and station by a height of nearly six feet, and was only restrained from overwhelming them by a solid embankment faced with stone, and supported by buttresses, the work of former governments.

In Sanscrit, the word Catak signifies a royal residence, or seat of empire, and it is still celebrated as Catak Benares, under which title it is mentioned by Ferishta and Abul Fazel. It is said to have been a capital so early as the tenth century; but the fortress of Barabutty was not built until the fourteenth century.

The principal street is remarkably well-built, containing many houses, two and some three stories high, a spacious chowk, and several respectable Mahomedan buildings, such as the Jumma Musjeed, the mosque and octagon shrine of Cuddam Resool,

where a stone from Mecca is exhibited bearing an impression of the prophet's foot. The dwellings of the civil establishment partly occupy an open space on the skirts of the city. and are partly dispersed over the environs The high bank of the Laul baugh is now the site of European villas, not a stone of the old palace remaining. In 1822 this town contained 40,000 inhabitants, residing in 6,512 houses, exclusive of the cantonments, among which are several mansions of stone formerly belonging to Gosain and Parwar merchants, who engrossed the trade and official employments under the Maharattas. The fort named Barrabuttee stands about a mile N.W. from Cuttack. Travelling distance from Nagpoor 482 miles; from Hyderabad 651; from Madras 779; and from Delhi 902 miles. — (*Stirling*, *Richardson*, *Fullarton*, *Rennell*, *Upton*, *&c*)

Cutterah.—A village in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty-eight miles S.E. from the town of Bareily; lat. 28° 3′ N., lon. 79° 32′ E. This place is now almost entirely composed of mud houses, but the approach from the south and west is remarkable by two of the noblest clumps of trees in Hindostan. In A.D. 1774 a decisive battle was fought in this neighbourhood, in which Shuja ud Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude, with the assistance of a British detachment, defeated the Rohillahs, and conquered Rohilcund as far as the Lolldong pass. Hafez Rehmut, their principal leader, was slain in the action, and the Rohillahs annihilated as an independent nation. The field of battle lies about three miles from Cutterah, near a considerable nullah, or water-course, crossed by a massy bridge of many arches, on the opposite side of which, in commemoration of the victory, the Nabob founded the town of Futteghur.—(*Fullarton*, *Tennant*, *&c.*)

Cuttub Minar.—A remarkable pillar, situated near the small town of Cuttub, thirteen miles nearly due south from Delhi. Its base is a polygon of twenty-seven sides, and rises in a circular form. The exterior part is fluted into twenty-seven semicircular and angular divisions. There are four balconies in the height of the building · the first at ninety feet, the second at 140, the third at 180, and the fourth at 203 feet. An irregular spiral staircase leads from the bottom to the summit of the minar, which is crowned with a majestic cupola of red granite. The entire height of the pillar is 242 feet. Such was the description of this noble column in A D. 1794; since then the cupola has fallen in, the upper part is considerably dilapidated, and on the east its fall threatens to be accelerated by the roots of a banyan tree. This is certainly to be regretted, for the Cuttub Minar is a structure unrivalled of its kind in Hindostan for its great size, materials, profusion of ornament, and above all for the solidity of its construction, which has enabled it to resist time, storm, and earthquake, without repairs, for more than 300 years. Two inscriptions state that the pillar was erected in the time of Shums ud Deen Altumsh, who reigned from A.D. 1210 to 1231, corresponding with the hejira 607 and 609, and who may be considered as the emperor under whose auspices the column was completed.

The town of Cuttub, thus named from possessing the shrine and relics of Cuttub ud Deen, a celebrated Mahomedan saint, is a place much resorted to by devotees of that faith. The late Mogul, Shah Allum, and many other members of the imperial family, lie also buried here; and the reigning emperor, Acber the Second, has also prepared a mausoleum for himself and begum. Near the shrine are several handsome houses, arranged in the form of a square, with a well in the centre, belonging to the emperor and princes of the royal house, who occasionally visit Cuttub for the purposes of devotion.—(*Fullarton*, *J. B. Blunt*, *Ewer*, *&c.*)

Cutwa (*Kangtoya*).—A town in

the province of Bengal, seventy-five miles N.N.W. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 37′ N., lon. 88° 10′ E. This place is noted for a smart action that was fought here, in 1763, with the troops of Cossim Ali, and for the manufacture of brass vessels. The composition termed dosta seems to be a kind of pewter or alloy, containing a a great deal of zinc

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Dabbling.—A Tartar village in Tibet, situated on the left bank of the Sutuleje, 9,020 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 45′ N., lon 78° 37′ E.

Dabul *(Devalaya)*.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, division of Concan, eighty-five miles S by E. from Bombay, lat 17° 46′ N, lon. 73° 16′ E.

Dacca Jelalpoor *(Dhaka)*.—A district in the province of Bengal, situated principally between the 23d and 24th degrees of north latitude To the north it is bounded by Mymunsingh, on the south by Tiperah and Backergunge, to the east it has Tiperah, and on the west Rajeshahy and Jessore Prior to the new arrangement in 1800 this was one of the largest and most valuable districts in Bengal, stretching south to the sea, and north to the Garrow mountains. It then contained 15,397 British square miles, subdivided into a number of zemindaries, and was reckoned the granary of Bengal, a distinction it still retains; but prior to 1814 its limits had been reduced within 6,000 square miles. During the rainy season a great extent of Dacca Jelalpoor exhibits the appearance of an immense lake, in which villages raised on artificial embankments seem scattered like islands; and being intersected by two of the largest rivers in the world (the Ganges and Brahmaputra), is subject annually to considerable changes in the boundaries of estates, large portions being transferred from one side to the other, occasioning infinite trouble to the revenue officers, and loss to the government. These annual inundations, however, fertilize the land, notwithstanding which there is scarcely a district in Bengal where more jungle and unoccupied land is to be found. The whole of the latter is claimed as the property of individuals, who, although they derive no profit from it, and are too indolent to render it productive, will not suffer others to bring it into cultivation without exacting a disproportionate recompense for the permission.

It must, nevertheless, be allowed that Dacca Jelalpoor has been in a state of progressive improvement since the famine of 1787, when extensive tracts of excellent land were utterly depopulated, and still continue so overgrown with jungle, and so infested with wild elephants, that the peasantry find it impracticable to prosecute cultivation, their labours are so rapidly destroyed. In other quarters, tracts of country formerly covered with brushwood and rank vegetation, are now cleared of jungle, and exhibit villages and cultivated fields. The ancient mosques and Hindoo temples are mostly deserted and in ruins, but those of modern date are kept in tolerable repair. Several modern temples and obelisks have also risen, and probably many improved domestic buildings, which, from the concealed and secluded situations always selected by the natives, do not so often attract the notice of the traveller. In the vicinity of the capital, and more especially to the south, are the remains of many fortresses and redoubts, built to oppose the depredations of the Mughs, and to prevent their ascending the river; but they are now all in a ruinous condition, and their cannon honey-combed and unserviceable. Throughout this district there are many Hindoo schools, in which the rudiments of the Bengalese language are taught, with the principles, or rather forms, of their religion and law.

The landed estates in this district consist mostly of small talooks, so divided and subdivided into minute portions as to become almost evanescent. The business of the judicial department is consequently multifarious and intricate, and the European officers are compelled to have recourse for explications to the natives attached to their respective courts. The latter find it their interest to render the intricacy still more perplexed, and as they here, as elsewhere, are alone masters of the detail, they are thereby enabled to aggravate the confusion. In 1802 the existing collector stated the following proportions of the cultivated to the uncultivated land, but the latter appear in most cases to have been underrated, the revenue officers of that period being little acquainted with the mensuration of land:

	uncultivated	cultivated.
Southward	1-4th to	3-4ths
Northward	5-8ths	3-8ths
Eastward	1-8th	7-8ths
Westward	3-8ths	5-8ths

The most valuable agricultural productions are rice, betel-nut, cotton, hemp, and sugar. In 1814 the jumma or land-tax assessment amounted to 12,89,145 rupees. Plain muslins, distinguished by different names according to the fineness and closeness of the texture, as well as flowered, striped, and chequered muslins, are fabricated chiefly in this district, where a species of cotton named the banga grows, necessary, although not of a very superior quality, to form the stripes of the finest muslins, for which the city of Dacca has been so long celebrated. The northern parts of Benares furnish both plain and flowered muslins, which are not ill adapted for common uses, though incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca. Dimities of various kinds and patterns, and cloths resembling diaper and damask linen, are also made in this district. The export of the above staples has much decreased, and the art of manufacturing some of the finest species of muslin is in danger of being lost, the orders for them being so few that many of the families who possess by hereditary instruction the art of fabricating them have desisted, on account of the difficulty they afterwards experience in finding a purchaser. This decline may partly be accounted for from the utter stagnation of demand in the upper provinces since the downfall of the imperial government, prior to which these delicate and beautiful fabrics were in such estimation, not only at the court of Delhi, but among all the noblesse of Hindostan, as to render it difficult to supply the quantity wanted. Among the more recent causes may be adduced the French revolution, the degree of perfection to which this particular manufacture has lately been brought in Great Britain, the great diminution of the Company's investment, and the advance in the price of cotton.

The principal towns in this district are Dacca, Narraingunge, Soonergong, and Rajanagur. The head quarters of the judge and magistrate and civil establishment is at Fureedpoor, about forty miles from the city of Dacca. In 1801 the total population was computed at 938,712 inhabitants, one half Hindoo and the other half Mahomedan. A portion of this population are slaves, and the custom of disposing of persons already in a state of slavery is common throughout the country. On these occasions regular deeds of sale are executed, some of which are registered in the court of justice; and when an estate to which slaves are attached is sold privately, the slaves are commonly sold at the same time, although a separate deed of sale is always executed.

During the Mahomedan government, the Dacca province was ruled by a foujdar or commandant, the last of whom, prior to the British conquest, was Shahamut Jung Nowazish Mahomed Khan, nephew and son-in-law to Aliverdi Khan. He was at once dewan of the whole soubah of Bengal, and Nabob Nazim of Dacca with all the territories to the eastward

It was in search of the treasures amassed by his deputy, Raj Bullub, and supposed to have been concealed by his son Krishna Das, when he took refuge in Calcutta, that Seraje ud Dowlah in an evil hour commenced the war, that for him ended so fatally.

After the British conquest this large division of Bengal was partitioned into different districts, under the jurisdiction of distinct judicial and fiscal officers, and having a peculiar court of circuit and appeal for the superintendence of the whole. At present the most prevalent crimes of enormity in this district are murder, robbery, theft, perjury, armed affrays, the encroachment of zemindars, and the collusion of informers by profession, who conceal the principals, and derive a maintenance from the contributions they levy on the gangs, with which they are privately connected. The inherent timidity of the natives facilitates the plunder, while his want of moral principle leads him to view the deed rather as an adroit exploit than a heinous crime against society. In recent times, however, the Bengal government, by steady and persevering exertions, has greatly reduced the number, as well as the atrocity of the crimes committed, so that in 1813, it was reported by the superintendent of police that no dacoity or gang robbery whatever had occurred during the last quarter of that year. This improvement continued so progressive, that in 1815 the third judge of the court of circuit reported, that he considered the perpetration of gang robbery to have been finally suppressed. On a general view of the Dacca division, crimes of great enormity had in a manner ceased to be perpetrated, and (with the exception of burglary) other crimes were less frequent; the consequence of a more vigilant control exercised by the police departments, and a due enforcement of the penal regulations. In the criminal calendars generally more Mahomedans than Hindoos are to be found, but in civil suits the latter form the majority.

The people of Calcutta who speak the Gour dialect of the Bengalese, although confounded by the natives of western Hindostan with the Bengalese, take, when they have an opportunity, the trouble to ridicule the inhabitants of Dacca, who are the proper genuine Bengalese; and Calcutta being now the capital, the men of rank at Dacca are becoming ashamed of their provincial accent, and endeavour to imitate the baboos (opulent Hindoo merchants) of the modern metropolis. The districts comprizing the eastern quarter of Bengal, and subordinate to the Dacca court of circuit and appeal, are: 1. Mymunsingh, 2. Silhet, 3. Tiperah; 4. Chittagong; 5. Backergunge; 6. Dacca Jelalpoor, and 7. the city of Dacca.—(*J. Grant, Colebrooke, J. D. Paterson, Crisp, Massie, Rees, Shakespear, &c.*)

DACCA (*Dhaca*).—A large town in Bengal situated beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, but a great branch named the Booree Gunga, or old Ganges, above a mile in width, runs past it; indeed, few situations are better calculated for inland commerce, as the river communicates with all the other interior navigations by a direct course. Its site is about 100 miles above the mouth of the Ganges, and 180 by road from Calcutta; but the journey by water, on account of the circuitous route and twistings of the river, occupies from one to two weeks, and the space gone over probably exceeds 400 miles. Lat. 23° 42′ N., lon. 90° 17′ E.

Dacca succeeded to Soonergong as the provincial capital of the eastern quarter of Bengal, and it is now probably the second in the province with respect to size and population. The country around it lying low, and being always covered with verdure during the hot months, is not subject to the violent heats of Benares, Patna, and other places in Bahar. The unhealthy season is from the 20th August to the 10th of October, during which period the rivers are subsiding, and the inundation draining off the land; but upon the whole it is one of

the healthiest and most pleasant stations in Bengal. It manufactures and exports many varieties of the finest muslins, in the delicacy and beauty of which fabric it surpasses the whole world.

That Dacca is a city comparatively modern is proved by its not being mentioned by Abul Fazel, at least under that name, in the Ayeen Acberry. In A.D. 1608 the seat of government was removed from Rajmahal to this place by the then governor of Bengal, Islam Khan, and in compliment to the reigning emperor its name changed to Jehangire Nuggur. Here he built a palace and brick fort, some remains of which are still to be seen. This transfer of the seat of government was probably occasioned by the ravages then perpetrating in the south-eastern quarter by the Mughs of Aracan, and the Portuguese pirates under Sebastian Gonzales. In 1657 Meer Jumla, the great commander under Aurengzebe, pursued the unfortunate Sultan Shuja to this place, and again constituted it the metropolis, the seat of government being for some time removed to Rajmahal. It is related that during the second viceroyship of Shaista Khan, rice was so cheap at Dacca that 640 pounds might be had in the market for one rupee. To commemorate this event, as he was leaving Dacca, in 1689, he ordered the western gate to be built up, and an inscription placed thereon, forbidding any future governor to open it until he had reduced the price to as cheap a rate, in consequence of which injunction it remained shut until the reign of Serferawz Khan in 1739. But this city appears to have had more than one alternation of prosperity and decay. It appears to have attained its greatest splendour during the reign of Aurengzebe; and, judging from the magnificence of the ruins, such as bridges, brick causeways, mosques, caravanserais, palaces, and gardens, now overspread with jungle, it must have vied in extent and riches with the greatest cities, Gour perhaps excepted.

The earliest permanent decline of Dacca appears to have commenced with the troubles and distractions of the Mogul empire that followed the invasion of Nadir Shah, and that it did not experience the fate of Gour may be attributed partly to its salubrity and partly to the peculiar commercial advantages of its situation. In this state of decay it remained with little variation until the establishment of provincial councils in 1774, when it again exhibited a shew of opulence, from which it fell on the abolition of these institutions. During the Mogul sway, the naval establishment maintained at Dacca consisted of 768 armed cruizers, to guard the south-eastern quarter against the ravages of the Mughs. In this watery region the veneration of the Hindoos for the tutelary deities of their rivers is extreme, and their ceremonies in honour of these exhibit a degree of cheerfulness and animation unknown elsewhere, in which watery rituals the more solemn Mussulmans largely participate, but ascribing the government of the floods to Khaujeh Khizzer, supposed to be the prophet Elias. Towards the end of the seventeenth century Dacca was the residence of Azim Ashaun, Aurengzebe's grandson, who commenced and nearly finished a magnificent palace, now in ruins. About this era also was probably fabricated one of those enormous and useless guns, not uncommon in the Deccan and other parts of India, and which was still to be seen so late as 1790. It was made of hammered iron, and consisted of an immense tube of fourteen bars, with rings driven over them, and beaten down to a smooth surface, so that its appearance was very good, though its proportions were faulty. From its size this gun must have weighed 64,814 pounds, or about the weight of eleven thirty-two pounders. The weight of an iron shot for the gun must have exceeded 400 pounds, but the experiment of discharging it probably never was hazarded.

The present town stands on a great deal of ground, and including the

suburbs, extends six miles along the banks of the river; but its breadth is not in proportion. Like other native towns it is a mixture of brick, thatch, and mud houses, with very narrow crooked streets, and so combustible that they are usually burned down once or twice per annum, the owners looking on with the greatest apathy. Into large earthen pots sunk in the floor they throw the few valuables they possess, and mats, thatch, and bamboos being cheap, the expenditure of a few rupees restores their edifice to all its original splendour. Dacca continues to be a very populous city, although it suffered greatly by the French revolution, its beautiful fabrics having been held in great estimation by the old French court. In 1801 the total population was estimated by the magistrate at 200,000, in the proportion of 145 Mahomedans to 130 Hindoos. Besides the genuine natives, there are many respectable Greek, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, who diversify the society and carry on a considerable traffic. The late nabob of Dacca, Seid Ali Khan Nusrit Jung, was long celebrated for the suavity of his manners, and his steady attachment to the British government, which had been recognized in various public documents by the Marquis Cornwallis, Sir John Shore, the Marquis Wellesley, Sir George Barlow, Lord Minto, and the Marquis of Hastings. In 1807 an allowance of 3,000 rupees was granted to the nabob for the repair of a building devoted to religious purposes, not only on account of the uniform propriety of his conduct and the respectability of his character, but also as an indication of the disposition of the British government to support the freedom of religious worship among all classes of their subjects. The native inhabitants have always been noted as a quiet orderly race, remarkably attached to the public functionaries placed over them, and to the British cause and nation generally. Travelling distance from Delhi 1,107 miles.—(*Rennell, Stewart, J. Grant, Crisp, Melville, &c.*)

Daha.—A station in Tibet, twenty-seven miles N. by E. from Niti Pass; lat. 31° 10′, lon. 79° 55′ E.

Dalapiri Isle.—One of the small Philippines, about thirty miles in circumference, lying due north from the large island of Luzon or Luçonia; lat. 19° 15′ N., lon. 121° E.

Dalla.—A town in the Ava dominions, province of Pegu, situated on the opposite side of the river to Rangoon; lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 96° 10′ E.

Dalmow.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifty-four miles south from Lucknow; lat. 26° 5′ N., lon. 80° 56′ E. The appearance of this place, viewed from the river, is imposing, but nothing more wretched can be imagined than the interior, which in 1819 appeared to have lost half its population.

Dalmacherry.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, 100 miles N.W. from Madras; lat. 13° 38′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E.

Damack.—A town in the island of Java, fifteen miles N.E. from Samarang, lat. 6° 50′ S., lon. 110° 38′ E. This is still a populous place, and was formerly the capital of a principality of the same name. The vicinity is marshy, and the country level. A fine canal, navigable to the distance of twenty miles from Samarang, runs along the left side of the road, and terminates in the river Tanganamio, which is also navigable; the whole district being much intersected by canals, water-courses, and streams. —(*Thorn, &c.*)

Damak Shu Mountains.—A high range of mountains north of the Himalaya, about lat. 31° 45′ N., lon. 78° 15′ E., which separate the district of Kunawur from the Tartar province of Lahdack.

Damaran Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas about forty-five miles in circumference, two leagues distant from Palawan; lat. 10° 5′ N., lon. 119° 50′ E.

Damaun *(a skirt)*.—A large district in the Afghan dominions extending along the west bank of the Indus, between the 31st and 33d degrees of north latitude. It commences near Sungur, lat. 30° 45′ N., and stetches as far north as the eastern branches of the Soliman range. The hills south of the salt range, and the plains and valleys they include, are also generally comprehended in Damaun The plain immediately on the right bank of the Indus is sometimes distinguished by the appellation of Muklewaud, in which case the term Damaun is only applied to the skirts of the hills, which is its literal meaning. In its most extended sense, Damaun includes all the country between the salt range, the Soliman mountains, the Indus, and Sungur in Upper Sinde. The principal town is Dera Ismael Khan, the residence of the governor delegated by the Cabul sovereign; the inhabitants are Juts and Baloochies, dark in complexion, lean and meagre in form. Muklewaud extends along the Indus about 120 miles, its main breadth being twenty-five. It is a plain of hard smooth clay, quite flat, smooth of grass, but sprinkled with bushes and stunted trees The soil, when much trodden, becomes a minute whitish dust, apparently composed from the slime deposited by the Indus, which in summer inundates the country to a considerable extent.

The river banks are covered with a thick jungle of low tamarisks, in some places mixed with long grass and thorny bushes, swarming with wild swine, hog deer, and all sorts of game. Around the villages frequently clumps of date-trees are seen, and are the only tall trees on the plain. When cultivated it is productive, but the greater part of the plain is a waste, owing to the vices of the government, and consequent thinness of the population. The southern section of the plain has much jungle, the north sand; and in both camels cf the species seen in Hindostan are reared.

The country of the Marwuts is composed of arid sandy plains, separated by ranges of hills. For the purposes of agriculture it is entirely dependent on the rains, spring water being scanty. Half the Marwuts are stationary, being employed in agriculture; the others range about with their herds of camels. Their country is about thirty-five miles square, but thinly peopled. Damaun proper lies to the south of the Marwut country, and is possessed by many small, barbarous, and hostile tribes. Minute portions, however, are well cultivated, the produce being bajaree, jowary, and wheat The winter of Damaun is considerably colder than in most parts of Hindostan, frost being common in the morning, and the thermometer some degrees below the freezing point The summer, on the other hand, is most intolerably hot, the heat of the night almost equalling that of the day, and according to native reports, the inhabitants are obliged to wet their clothes before they go to sleep. The peasantry throughout the province are mostly Juts and Baloochies, with some Hindoos; but they are not allowed to possess land, and cannot pass from one master to another without permission; but they can at any time quit the tribe with which they have been dwellers. The whole of Damaun is, or rather was, subject to the Cabul sovereign's authority, which was however but slightly exercised. The tribes were generally bound to furnish him with a body of horse, usually commuted into a sum of money, and he also levied a tax on the Hindoos.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Damaun.—A seaport town of considerable note in the province of Gujerat, 100 miles N. from Bombay; lat. 20° 25′ N., lon. 72° 58′ E. The Portuguese conquered this place so early as 1531, and it still remains in their possession It makes a conspicuous figure viewed from the sea, the churches and houses being in general white; but the commerce is now much diminished. The anchorage is in eight fathoms, three miles off

shore, but the river affords a secure harbour for small vessels, and in spring tides during the S.W. monsoon has from eighteen to twenty feet of water over the bar. Ship-building has long been the most profitable occupation here, the teak forests being at no great distance. The builder in 1818 was a Hindoo, who constructed all his ships on one model, which was too short for the breadth, thereby rendering them uneasy in a head sea. On the other hand it is admitted they wear well, stow well, and before the wind sail most furiously.—(*Elmore, Malet, Bruce, &c.*)

DAMBOOLOO.—A village in the island of Ceylon, thirty-four miles north from Candy; lat. 7° 47′ N., lon. 80° 46′ E.—Dambooloo-gallé, the rock that contains the cave temples, is of vast size and almost insulated, its perpendicular height above the plain being about 600 feet. The temples for which Dambooloo is celebrated are excavations on the south side of the rock, 350 feet above the plain. Some of these are of immense size (one 190 feet long by ninety wide and forty-five high), and they all still contain images of Buddha and other deities, besides paintings illustrative of the history of Ceylon, the whole in remarkably good preservation. It seems probable that these vast caverns are principally natural excavations, subsequently modified and adorned by the votaries of Buddha; but no rational tradition of their origin is now extant.—(*Davy, &c.*)

DAMLA.—A small town in the province of Delhi, twenty miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 6′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

DAMOO.—A town in Tibet, forty miles N.N.E. from the Niti Pass; lat. 31° 16′ N., lon. 80° 4′ E. According to native reports, gold mines are worked in this vicinity.

DAMPIER'S STRAITS.—These straits separate the Wageeoo Isles from the island of Battanta, and have from twelve to fourteen fathoms water through the passage.

DAMPOOR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, thirty-eight miles N.W. from the town of Moradabad. This place contains several mosques, and has a tolerably large and well supplied bazar.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

DAMUL.—A village in the Carnatic, district of Northern Arcot, about eight miles W. by N. from Conjeveram, and remarkable for its fine tank and Hindoo temple.

DANDAR (*Dhandar*).—A small district in the Gujerat province situated to the north of Palhanpoor, and thus named on account of its extraordinary fertility. According to the reports of a native moonshee sent to examine this and the adjacent tracts, it contains 180 towns and villages; but the moonshee appears to have been too liberal in his estimate.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

DANG.—A small tract in Northern Hindostan subject to Nepaul, situated about 100 miles N.N.W. from Lucknow, and bounded on the south by the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories. The rajahs formerly lived on a high hill named Dang, but for some generations they have withdrawn to Phalabamb, situated on a hill immediately overhanging the plain, and consisting of huts with wood and mud walls, the chief's house alone being built of brick. On the hills were several iron mines, but the most valuable portion of the Dang raja's estate consisted of the Toolseepoor pergunnah, situated within the Oude dominions. Bahadur Sah, the regent of Nepaul, gave the hills of Dang to his sister, the Ranny of Sahana; but Phalabamb, or New Dang, was protected by the Nabob Vizier, and the family still continue rajas of Toolseepoor.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

DANNOO.—A town on the sea-coast of the Aurungabad province, thirty-four miles south from Damaun; lat. 19° 57′ N., lon. 72° 50′ E.

DAOUDCAUNDY.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the great Menga, twenty-

five miles S.E. from Dacca; lat. 23° 30′ N., lon 90° 36′ E. During the rainy season there is a passage from Dacca to Comillah past this place, by the Goomty river, which in the dry season is too shallow to admit even canoes.

DAOUDNAGUR.—A large town in the Bahar district, situated on the east side of the Sone river, thirty miles S S.W from Patna; lat. 25° 5′ N., lon 84° 25′ E. This is a large place, and including Ahmedgunge, in 1809, is said to contain 8,000 houses. It contains a cloth factory dependent on the commercial resident at Patna, and also a factor from the Patna opium agent.—(*F Buchanan, &c*)

DARANAGUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, seventy-four miles N E from Delhi city, lat 29° 17′ N, lon 78° E

DARAPORAM.—A populous town in the province of Coimbatoor, situated in an open country about half a mile distant from the river Amaravati, and 139° S S E. from Seringapatam, lat 10° 37′ N., lon. 77° 35′ E This place is about forty miles distant from the great hills that run south, and about fifteen from the Pilney hills in Dindigul. The streets here are remarkably spacious, and the habitations, although built of earth and roofed with tile and thatch, large and commodious The adjacent country is enclosed with milk plant hedges, and irrigated by two fine canals, which render it very productive of rice and tobacco The town and mud fort, which still remains, were taken from Tippoo in 1783, by the southern army.—(*F Buchanan, Fullarton, Medical Reports, &c.*)

DARAPOOREE.—A small cantonment in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Moota, three miles N. by W. from Poona, and lately the head-quarters of an auxiliary corps in the service of the ex-Peshwa, commanded by British officers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

DAROZEH.—A small walled town in the Balaghaut ceded territories, district of Bellary, and about seventeen miles travelling distance N W. from the town of Bellary. This place is beautifully situated on the margin of a fertile plain, below a wild mountainous tract covered with forests, which extend from hence to the neighbourhood of Bijanagur. A magnificent artificial lake for the irrigation of the subjacent lands has been formed here, by means of an embankment about sixty feet high, with great stone sluices, and extending three miles from the projecting point of one mountain to another It was constructed during the government of Tippoo Sultan—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

DARCHAN.—A town in Tibet, situated a few miles north from Manasarovara, and supposed to be an entrepot between Lassa and Lahdack. Individual merchants pitch their tents here, and a sort of mart continues from June to October; but when visited by Mr. Moorcroft, the town consisted of only four houses of unburned bricks and about twenty-eight tents, occupied by some grain merchants and three dealers in tea, who asserted that they had been at Pekin, lat. 31° 4′ N, lon 81° 13′ E

DAROOR.—A town in the Aurungabad province, ninety miles S E. from the city of Aurungabad; lat 18° 49′ N, lon. 76° 19′ E.

DARWAR.—A British district in the province of Bejapoor, acquired from the dominions of the ex-Peshwa, and at present subordinate to the Bombay presidency. The territory in which it is situated in the official records is distinguished as "the Carnatic, or Southern Maharatta country." In 1820 the land was said to consist of 9 parts black soil, 4½ mixed, 2¼ wet, and 1¼ garden,=16 parts The improvement of this district was greatly retarded by the failure of the crops and the epidemic of 1818-19, which was supposed to have swept away 25,000 persons out of a computed population of 600,000 The net revenue, after deducting charges, then

amounted to 15,21,508 rupees.—(*Thackeray, &c.*)

Darwar.—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of the preceding district, and named by the Mahomedans Nusserabad, lat. 15° 28′ N., lon. 75° 8′ E. In 1790 it was taken from Tippoo by the Maharatta army under Purseram Bhow, assisted by three battalions of Bombay sepoys, who bore the whole brunt of a twenty-nine weeks' siege. It was then strong, although not regularly fortified, and the ditches were particularly good. The town stands to the southward of the fort, extending eastward, and was almost destroyed during the siege; but a native town is soon rebuilt and repeopled.—(*Moore, &c.*)

Dassgong.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, seventy-three miles S.S.E. from Bombay, lat. 18° 2′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E.

Dattanagur.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, principality of Bussaher, situated below Rampoor, the capital. Here the valley of the Sutulje, which has hitherto been narrow and confined between abrupt mountains, expands, and forms a flat three miles long, well watered by canals, and producing luxuriant crops.—(*Messrs. Gerards, &c.*)

Dauli River.—A river of Northern Hindostan, which it enters by the Niti Pass; lat. 30°47′ N., lon. 79°56′E., and ultimately joins the Ganges, of which, from its size and great length, of course it ought to be considered the principal branch, if the Neelung does not claim that distinction. Its source remains unknown.

Daumnagur.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, seventy-eight miles N.N.E. from Diu; lat. 21° 34′ N., lon. 71° 35′ E.

Daungry.—A town in the province of Candeish, which in 1816 belonged to the Peshwa; lat. 21° 8′ N., lon. 75° 8′ E., seventy-five miles W.S.W. from Boorhampoor. Here is a handsome mosque and reservoir of stone, erected during the reign of Aurengzebe by Ahmed Khan Lodi, a Patan chief.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Daunta.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, sixty-six miles W.S.W. from Odeypoor, lat. 28° 18′ N., lon. 72° 41′ E.

Daurey.—A village in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, eleven miles from Buckutghur; lat. 22° 12′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E. At this spot the navigation of the Nerbudda is impeded by a fall of thirty feet in height and 100 in length, and is also unusually narrow, the stream for half a mile being only from twenty to forty yards wide, and the current consequently rapid.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Dawurconda.—A district in the Hyderabad province, bounded on the south by the Krishna river, and containing the towns of Dawurconda, Pailwa, and Nardinpet. The first, which communicates its name to the district, is situated in lat. 16° 43′ N., lon. 78° 57′ E., fifty-one miles S. by E. from the city of Hyderabad.

Dawulghaut.—A walled town situated at the entrance of a pass of the same name through the Berar chain of mountains, proceeding from the south, lat. 20° 33′ N., lon. 76° 20′ E., fifty-four miles south from Boorhanpoor.

Deba (or *Dhapa*).—A town in Tibet, division of Undes, of which it may be reckoned the capital, lat. 30° 13′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E. This place stands on irregular eminences, forming the side of a ravine, descending steeply to the river Tiltil. The broken ground in this neighbourhood exhibits many extraordinary appearances, the melting snow having cut the clay into channels, leaving distinct elevated ridges, fashioned by accident into a great diversity of figures, representing castles, fortifications, houses, and various indescribable masses. It has been ascertained that Deba is tenanted throughout the year, the climate being by no means so severe as from the great elevation (14,924 feet) of the valley of Sutulje

above the level of the sea, might have been anticipated. Fine crops of awa grow in the neighbourhood, the meal from which is very fine, and the plant, being of so hardy a nature, might be advantageously naturalized in Britain and the north of Europe.

The houses are of stone, two stories high, whitewashed on the outside, but excessively filthy within The town itself is subdivided into three parts first, a college, the residence of the lama and his gylums, or monks, second, a nunnery, and thirdly, the houses of the vizier, deba, and laity in general In the centre of a semicircle formed by the houses, are the tombs and temples of various lamas, having smaller ones attached to them, these are circular at their base, decreasing gradually by smaller circles, and terminating in a point, covered with plates of copper, like an umbrella, and gilt In the centre, above these, stands the temple of Narayan (Vishnu), surrounded by houses, and painted of a red colour This is an irregular building, with one door, surmounted by a square small building, covered with gilt brass, and ornamented with grotesque figures Within the porch of the temple the side walls are painted with bold sketches of a deity with large staring eyes in his head, which is enveloped with a kind of glory. At the upper end of the temple, and immediately fronting the door, is a gilt copper figure of Narayan, in the European sitting posture, about twenty feet high On his right side is a small figure of Lakshmi (the wife of Vishnu); and on the left that of a lama, also of gilt copper, in his canonicals. Other Hindoo deities of brass, and lamas of wood, attended by their mothers, bowls of water, masks of tigers, and other animals, enormous brazen speaking trumpets, and other paraphernalia of superstition, are here collected.

Secular matters are conducted by the Deba vizier and immediate officers of the government, who are apparently in comfortable circumstances. The gylums, or monks, who lead a life of celibacy, seem a dirty, greasy, good-humoured peop[le w]ho, besides performing their religious functions, carry on a considerable traffic in sheep's wool and salt, which they exchange for wheat and barley The rules of the nunnery are said to be severe, and the paraphernalia of the temple greatly resembles that of the Roman Catholic church. In the rock on which the temple stands are granaries, said to contain many thousand maunds of rice, the inhabitants being dependent for their annual supply of that grain and barley on the Mutchas of Niti and Jowaur —(*Moorcroft, Webb, Traill, &c.*)

Deba Temple —A temple in Northern Hindostan, twenty-one miles S.E from Serinagur, lat 29° 55′ N., lon 78° 58′ E , 8,751 feet above the level of the sea

Depalpoor (*Devalayapura*).—A town in the province of Lahore, situated in the Doab, formed by the aggregated waters of the Sutuleje and Beyah on one side, with those of the Ravey on the other In A.D. 1582, when Abul Fazel compiled the institutes of Acber, it was the capital of a district, lat. 30°39′ N , lon 73°37′E , seventy-five miles S S W. from the city of Lahore At present both town and district are subject to Runjeet Singh, the Seik chief of Lahore

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DECCAN

(*Dacshina*).

This term, which is of Sanscrit origin, means the south, and was formerly applied by Hindoo geographers to the whole of the countries situated to the south of the Nerbudda river; but the fixed possessions of the Mahomedans having, for many centuries after their invasion of the Deccan, extended no further south than the river Krishna, the name of Deccan came to signify, in Hindostan, the countries between those two rivers only, and such is the popular acceptation of its southern boundary at the present day The territories to the south of the Krishna and

Toombudra may be described as India south of the Krishna, for although along with the Deccan it has been improperly termed a peninsula, an equal-sided triangle much more resembles their figure. When Arungzebe, in 1690, had completed the conquest of what was then called the Deccan, it was subdivided into six soubahs or viceroyalties, viz

1 Candeish (or Khandesh), the capital Boorhanpoor.

2. Aurungabad, or Ahmednuggur, recently the capital of the Nizam Shahee dynasty

3 Beeder, or Kalberga, the ancient capital of the Bhamenee sultans.

4. Hyderabad, including Nandere, the seat of the late Golconda or Cuttub Shahee dynasty.

5. Bejapoor, the capital of the Adil Shahee dynasty

6 The province of Berar, the limits of which were quite undefined, and extended eastward towards Gundwana and Orissa, neither of which provinces were included by name in the Mogul Deccan, although situated within its geographical limits

7. The Hindoo and nearly unexplored province of Gundwana.

8 Orissa, on the margin of the bay of Bengal.

The general character of the north-western quarter of the Deccan now subject to the British government, is that of a barren country, with a population evidently inferior to the average of Europe, where of all kingdoms it most resembles Hungary, a region whose fertility has been generally over-rated Like Hungary, a considerable portion of it is well adapted for the cultivation of vines, which should be encouraged if it were only to procure a more healthy beverage for the troops, than the deleterious brandy, arrack, and rum, which they daily imbibe in no moderate quantities The climate of this quarter, composing the late Peshwa's dominions, is also greatly praised during the rainy and cool seasons, and the hot winds are of no long duration. Indeed, its openness and height above the sea might be expected to render it salubrious.

In these extensive regions, the chief part of the population is still Hindoo, more especially in the provinces that were under the Maharatta governments There is a considerable Mahomedan population in the countries subject to the Nizam, but those of the lower classes, who are cultivators, have nearly adopted all the manners and customs of the Hindoos.

The Deccan is mentioned by the author of the circumnavigation of the Erythrean sea, as one of the divisions of the Indian continent. His words are, "from Barygoza (supposed to be Broach or Bhrigu-gosha) the country stretches to the south, hence that district is named Dachenabades, for in the language of the country the south is called Dachanos."

The first independent sovereign of the Deccan was Sultan Allah ud Deen Hossein Kangoh Bhamenee, A.D. 1337, whose capital was Kalbergah. He died A.D 1357, and was succeeded by

Mahomed Shah Bhamenee, who died in 1374 This prince was the first Mahomedan sovereign on record, who employed a train of artillery in the Deccany wars, worked by Turks and Europeans.

Mujahed Shah Bhamenee, assassinated in 1377 He penetrated to Ramisseram, in the straits of Ceylon, but did not retain permanent possession of the country he had overrun.

Daoud Shah Bhamenee, assassinated in 1378

Mahmood Bhamenee, died a natural death in 1396.

Shums ud Deen Bhamenee, dethroned and blinded in 1396.

Feroze Roze Afzoon Bhamenee, dethroned by his brother, who succeeded him in 1422

Ahmed Shah Wallee Bhamenee, died in 1434

Allah ud Deen the second, died in 1457.

Humayoon Shah Bhamenee, died in 1460

Nizam Shah Bhamence, died in 1462

Mahomed Shah Bhamenee, died in 1482.

Mahmood Shah Bhamenee, died in confinement A.D 1518, and with him terminated the Bhamenee dynasty of the Deccan, although several other pageant monarchs were successively placed on the throne. On the dissolution of this once powerful empire, the Deccan became subdivided into the following kingdoms, which will be found described under their respective heads

1 The Bejapoor, or Adil Shahee

2 The Golconda, or Cuttub Shahee.

3. The Berar, or Ommaud Shahee

4 The Ahmednuggur, or Nizam Shahee.

5. The Beeder, or Bereed Shahee

Aurengzebe, while viceroy of the Deccan under his father, Shah Jehan, greatly curtailed the territories of the remaining Patan princes in that region, and after he ascended the throne he subdued the whole Just at the same time his wars with the Maharattas, then springing into notice, commenced, and gave him full occupation during the rest of his life His perseverance was so great, that towards the conclusion of his reign, having taken most of the Maharatta fortresses, they were left without any resource but plunder, yet their numbers continued to increase. Many of the powerful and disaffected zemindars joined them, so that their predatory forces were estimated at 100,000 horse At the same time, in spite of Aurengzebe's vigilance and habits of business, the Mogul army began to fall off both in spirit and discipline. The imperial nobility, deprived of their jaghires by the Maharatta devastations, had recourse to false musters, and did not keep up half their complement of men and horses. Owing to this, detachments could not be dispersed in pursuit of the marauders, and the grand army being constantly employed in sieges, left the Maharattas at liberty to plunder without molestation. By their incessant activity, they stopped every communication of supply to the imperial camp, where numbers perished by famine, they even offered up mock prayers for the long life of Aurengzebe, whose system of warfare so highly favoured their depredations In addition to this the imperial troops were tired out with a constant campaign of twenty years, grew disgusted with their employment, and remiss in their duty Such was the state of the Deccany provinces towards the conclusion of the long and able reign of Aurengzebe, and from this detail the difficulties of his successors may be conjectured It is asserted by Mahomedan authorities, that Zullficar Khan, one of Aurengzebe's best generals, during six months, had nineteen actions with the Maharattas, and pursued them from place to place above 6,000 miles, in marches and countermarches

In 1717, Nizam ul Mulck obtained possession of what remained of the Mogul conquests in the Deccan, which from that period virtually ceased to form a part of the Delhi empire The Deccan continued subject to the Nizam and Maharattas until the British ascendancy, which may be dated about A D 1803, and then paramount sovereignty since the wars of 1818, at which era direct possession was obtained of a large tract of country, described in the next article as the "British Deccan" In 1821, three years after the districts on the Nerbudda were ceded to the British government, the natives began to level the fortifications round their villages, alleging that as they were now convinced their attachment to the British government would be permanent, fortifications were no longer necessary, besides which the population of these villages had so increased that there was not room for the inhabitants within the old boundary. The modern provinces comprehended within the geographical limits of the Deccan are the following, viz.

1 Gundwana.

2. Orissa.

3 The Northern Circars.

4 Candeish.

5. Berar
6. Beeder.
7. Hyderabad
8. Aurungabad.
9. Bejapoor.

Under these heads respectively, and the districts into which they are subdivided, further statistical particulars will be found. The rivers of the Deccan are too impetuous for navigation, when they are swollen by the periodical rains, and in the hot season too shallow except near their junction with the sea, which is invariably obstructed by sand-banks. Under these circumstances, the transportation of grain and merchandize became, at an early period, an occupation of considerable importance, the roads being nearly as impassable for wheeled carriages as the rivers were for boats. The whole of this great interchange has in consequence been always conveyed on bullocks, the property of a people termed Bunjaries, not aboriginal natives of the country, but mostly emigrants from Rajpootana.—(*Scott, Sydenham, Wilks, Ferishta, Briggs, &c.*)

DECCAN (*British*).—This territory comprehends the districts of Candeish, Poona, Ahmednuggur, and Darwar, which from the information collected up to 1821 were estimated to contain 70,000 square miles. The aggregate population (exclusive of villages belonging to Sindia, Holkar, the Nizam, and others, intricately mixed with the British possessions) was then calculated at 1,795,700 persons, but this does not include the city of Poona, the alienated villages in that district, the late cessions to the Nizam, nor the wandering tribes. By a comparison of the revenue of the excluded portions of this country with that of the British possessions in the vicinity, the population of which has been ascertained, the following estimate may be ventured on, and as Colapoor is not included, it nearly corresponds with Mr. Elphinstone's estimate of four millions.

	Persons.
District of Poona	484,717
Do Ahmednuggur	650,000
Do Candeish	417,976
Do. Darwar	684,193
	2,236,886
Southern Jaghires	778,183
Satara	736,284
	3,751,353

The number of government villages was 7,229, of villages alienated, as Jaghire, Serinjamy, &c. 2,252. Umber, the celebrated revenue intendant of the Deccan, under the last of the Nizam Shahee princes, appears to have concluded a standard village settlement of all the countries under his control. This appears to have been a fixed money rent, formed with reference to an equal share of the crop between the government and the cultivator, or two-fifths to the first, and three-fifths to the last. In 1820, the revenue of the Deccany districts was 59,60,296 rupees, and it was expected that by 1830 it would have increased ten lacs more, but so rapid was the improvement, that in June 1822 it already amounted to 76,03,411 rupees. In 1820 the mints of Kittoor and Moodhul had been suppressed, and that of Shahpoor transferred to Belgaum, and it was intended to substitute one uniform coinage for the infinite variety of currencies then circulating through the districts.

From the answers to queries, it would appear that slavery is very prevalent in the British Deccan, it is, however, a mild and mitigated servitude rather than absolute slavery. Many Brahmins have children by female slaves, who are designated Sindees, and do not acquire the pure Mahratta blood until the third generation. The crimes here are principally committed by Bheels, Ramooses, Mangs, Dhers, Coolies, Korawars, Mewaties, Bedurs, and persons from distant countries. In 1822, Mr.

Chaplin estimated the whole number of horses from the Tuptee to the Toombudra at only 20,000; excluding those of the Satara Raja, but including those of the Jaghiredars, and of the above number, more than half were mere ponies. Within the immediate British possessions he did not think there were more than 6,000 horses, and of these scarcely one fit for the British cavalry, yet so late as 1817 and 1818 the plains of the Deccan were covered with horsemen.—(*Chaplin, Thackeray, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Decknal (*Dakshinalaya, the southern residence*).—A town in the province of Orissa, the capital of a tributary zemindary in the district of Cuttack, forty miles N N W from the town of Cuttack; lat. 20° 58′ N, lon. 85′ 48° E. The extreme dimensions of this zemindary are 112 miles from east to west, and eighty-seven miles from north to south, the produce consists of rice, cotton, sugar-cane, timber, dammer, iron, honey, and wax. The annual tribute in 1814, paid into the Cuttack treasury was 4,780 rupees, the estimated profit remaining to the zemindar, 50,000 rupees.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

Deccan.—A town in the province of Malwa, forty-five miles S S W. from Oojein, lat. 22° 36′ N, lon. 75° 30′ E.

Deeg.—A town and fortress in the province of Agra belonging to the Bhurtpoor Raja, situated about fifty-seven miles N W from the city of Agra, lat. 27° 30′ N, lon. 77° 12′ E. In A D 1760 this place was strongly fortified by Sooraj Mull, the raja of the Jauts, but in 1776, it was taken from that tribe by Nudjiff Khan, after a siege of twelve months. It must again have come into the possession of the Jaut Raja, for in 1805 Lord Lake attacked Holcar's army, encamped under the walls of Deeg, and defeated it with great slaughter. This action proved fatal to Holcar's regular infantry and artillery, and the action at Futtehghur broke the spirit of his cavalry. Deeg was subsequently captured after a short and vigorous siege, but afterwards restored. To preserve this town from the violence of the torrents that pour from the hills during the rains, it is necessary to keep large embankments in repair. There are here the ruins of several remarkably fine palaces and gardens.—(*Malcolm, Metcalfe, Franklin, &c.*)

Deesa.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twelve miles west from Pahlanpoor, lat 24° 9′ N, lon. 72° 8′ E The surrounding country was formerly much infested by refractory Bheels and Mewassies, whose predatory habits almost prevented the collection of the revenue. Our most advanced military station on the Gujerat frontier is at Deesa, which stands on the Banass river. No station could be better chosen, for it is connected on the left with the British position in Cutch, and on the right at the distance of about sixty miles is Sirowy, one of the Rajpoot principalities of Ajmeer, the territories of which have for more than a century been rendered a scene of desolation by the inroads of its neighbours, and the predatory habits of its own population.—(*Malcolm, a Native Moonshee, &c.*)

Dehinda.—A town in the province of Berar, thirty-three miles S W. from Ellichpoor, lat. 20° 52′ N., lon 77° 17′ E.

Dehra.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, twenty-four miles N. by E from Hurdwar, lat 30° 18′ N. lon. 78° 1′ E

Dehwaun.—A town in the province of Gujerat, with a handsome pagoda and convent attached to it.

Deithbarra.—A town in the province of Gujerat, twenty-four miles W from Broach, lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 72° 50′ E.

Delft Isle.—A small island lying off the N W coast of Ceylon; lat. 9° 35′ N, lon. 79° 46′ E. In length it may be estimated at seven miles, by

three and a half the average breadth. This island belongs to the district of Jafnapatam, and affords good pasturage for breeding horses.

DELHI

(Dilli.)

The imperial province of Delhi is situated principally between the twenty-eighth and thirty-first degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Lahore, and Northern Hindostan west of the Goggra, to the south by Agra and Ajmeer, on the east it has Oude and Northern Hindostan, and on the west Ajmeer and Lahore. The principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following:

1. The assigned territories.
2. District of Bareilly, } formerly Rohilcund
3. District of Moradabad, } formerly Rohilcund
4. District of Shajehanpoor, } formerly Rohilcund
5. The jaghire of Rampoor, } formerly Rohilcund
6. District of North Saharunpoor
7. District of South Saharunpoor or Merut
8. Hurriana
9. Sirhind
10. Pattialah, and various petty Seik states.

The commencement of the long range of hills, of moderate elevation, extending through the Macherry dominions towards Jeypoor, is at Wuzeerabad, a small village on the banks of the Jumna, a little way above Delhi. The range as far as Sonah, with the pergunnahs of Palam, Nuptlighur, Padshapoor, Fureedabad, and Pulee Pakul, is inhabited chiefly by Goojurs, the second, commencing on the west at Padshapoor, to the Acberpoor ghaut beyond Alwar, by Mewaties. Besides the Ganges and Jumna, the chief rivers are the Caggur, Chittung, and the almost extinct Sereswati, formerly a most distinguished stream. The first proceeds by Shahabad, Koram, and Moonuk, towards Bhatneer. The banks are in general steep, and it has a small current of water. The Sereswati, while it has any water, flows past Mustaphabad and Thanesur, and joins the Caggur near Moonuk. The former course of the Chittung, which is supposed to have been brought from the hills by Ferose Shah, was by Ladoonah, Dalchoor, Jeend, Hansi, and Hissar, to Bahardaran, forty-eight miles W. by S. from Hissar, where it is lost in the sands; but the channel of the river is not now to be traced further than Jeend, and from the scantiness of the stream, the water during the dry season seldom reaches beyond Dalchoor.

In so arid a country, where cultivation so entirely depends on an adequate supply of moisture, the importance of canals and water conduits is so obvious, that the British government has latterly directed a great deal of its attention to the restoration of the ancient ones and the construc- of new. The canal of Ali Merdan Khan, extending from the river Jumna opposite to Kurnaul to Delhi, a direct distance of 100 miles, had long been choked up. In 1817 Capt. Rodney Blane, of the Bengal Engineers, was appointed by government to restore it at an estimated cost of about 3,50,000 rupees. The chief difficulty consisted in constructing such an embankment, where the water is taken from the Jumna, as would resist the floods, which operation, together with the excavation of the channel 180 miles in length, with sluices and lateral branches, was completed in May 1820. The water was turned into it on the 22d January, but on the 11th February had only reached Bhowanny, sixteen miles from Delhi, its tardiness being attributed to the quantity immediately absorbed by the soil, and abstracted by the farmers to assist the irrigation of the contiguous lands. It prosecuted its fertilizing course, and as the water approached the imperial city, it was hailed by a great concourse of inhabitants with joy and exclamations. Until the renovation of this canal, the people of Dehli had no pure water to drink, the well and Jumna water being much adulterated with saline and other deleterious impregnations.

The total actual disbursement incurred in effecting the restoration of this canal amounted to 2,22,805 rupees; the collections of one year after its completion to 25,586 rupees, after meeting all charges, and will no doubt gradually increase. Up to 1823 it had not been found practicable to establish a permanent channel between the head of the canal near the hills and the Jumna, the water of that river being still thrown into it by means of temporary dams, and it is conveyed by the same contrivance across the Soomb, a mountain torrent nearly dry in the hot season, which crosses the canal a little below its head. The bed of the Jumna being liable to extensive changes, any channel that might be opened would probably be ere long choaked up with sand. Could the water of the canal be kept up to the same level during the whole year, to afford at all seasons the same facility of irrigation, much more land would be brought into cultivation, and the coarser crops give place to more valuable ones, such as wheat, cotton, and sugar. On account of the extreme sandiness of the soil near the Soomb, where the reverse is most wanted, no solid foundation can be obtained to admit the construction of a work of masonry with sluice gates, and sufficiently strong to resist the violence of a swollen torrent. This canal, in its course from the hills, is distinguished by different names; the Delhi or Ali Merdan Khan's canal properly commences from Kurnaul, above which town it has various names, such as the Shah Nehr or Nehr Behesht, and the Doab, or Zabeta Khan's canal.

On the completion of this beneficent enterprise, the same meritorious officer (Capt. Blane) was directed to undertake the restoration of the canal of Sultan Feroze Shah, but unfortunately died soon after the completion of the first undertaking. This canal (Feroze Shah's) separating from that of Delhi a little below Kurnaul, stretches to the westward through the Hurriana by Hansi and Hissar to the frontiers of Bicanere. The primary object of its construction was to furnish the means of irrigation to the above tract, now wholly dependent on the periodical rains, the wells being of extraordinary depth, and the water frequently brackish. The branch leading through the city was a subsequent and subordinate undertaking. In 1823 the utmost expense estimated for its restoration was 2,00,000 rupees, for which sum an extensive tract of land, now sterile and waste, will be rendered capable of the finest cultivation, and will soon reimburse the outlay incurred.

In 1822, Zabeta Khan's, or the great Doub canal, was ordered to be surveyed. This canal separated from the Jumna a few miles below where that river issues from the northern mountains, and after a course of about 150 miles, again joined that river nearly opposite to Delhi, having passed through Saharunpoor, Rampoor, Shamlee, and other towns of note, and fertilized an extensive tract of country, formerly highly cultivated and populous, but now sterile and waste. It has never been ascertained who was the original constructor of this canal, which received the name of Zabeta Khan, from an attempt made by that Rohilla chief to restore it, but which was in existence long prior to his time. In 1823 the designation of "Hastings' canal," which by an absurd strain of flattery had been applied to the renovated canal of Ali Merdan Khan, was ordered by the Bengal government to be discontinued, and the old name restored.

There is no portion of Hindostan susceptible of greater improvement by irrigation than the province of Delhi, and it is probable that a great extent of moving sand, at present not merely unproductive, but threatening to overwhelm the adjacent lands, might be again brought into cultivation. Nature, in fact, has pointed out to the British government the mode by which her territories in Hindostan may be most beneficially fostered, which is, by regulating the

redundance of moisture supplied by her noble rivers, so that none shall be lost. There is no other employment in which capital, public or private, can be so profitably employed, and at the same time so greatly improve the condition of the inhabitants. In ancient times many streams traversed the north-western quarter of the Delhi province which have long ceased to flow, and one of them, now almost extinct, the Sereswati, was of such magnitude as to mark a geographical region in Hindoo mythological history. With little trouble or expense, when compared with the benefit, these rivers might be again led into their former channels, and much valuable water, which now flows undisturbed through the Sutuleje and Jumna to the sea, might be arrested in its progress, and made subservient to the purposes of husbandry. The objections to these excavations are the difficulty of conducting a stream across a territory intersected by deep ravines, and the political state of the province, a considerable portion of which belongs to petty native states, in the improvement of which the British nation has no direct interest. According to Mahomedan authors, Sultan Feroze the third dug a canal from the Sutuleje to the Jedger, and formed also many other water-courses and conduits, which in the confusion of succeeding events were neglected, and have long been so completely choked up, that all traces of them have disappeared.

The western quarter of this province, especially the Bhatty and Hurrianah countries, suffers greatly from drought in the hot season, when water can only be procured for which the inhabitants are obliged to dig from 120 to 200 feet deep, and even then they only arrive at what is brackish. During the rainy season, the Caggur and other temporary streams overflow, after which the pasture is excellent, and the country tolerably healthy, until the desert in the west becomes intensely heated. In the latitude of Anopshehr, between the Ganges and Jumna, this province displays a naked sterility seldom disturbed by the intervention of either trees or cultivation, having been, for more than a century prior to its acquisition by the British, devastated by every victorious or defeated faction. In the territory between the Jumna and Sutuleje mango-trees are numerous, and the soil produces wheat, barley, gram, and other grains. This portion of the province is not quite so arid as that further west, but the periodical rains are not sufficient to insure a crop, irrigation being also necessary, while water is ten and twelve cubits from the surface.

Compared with Bengal and the Company's old territories, the province of Delhi has few inhabitants to the square mile, but they must have rapidly increased during the last twenty-two years of uninterrupted tranquillity. They consist of a mixture of Hindoos, Mahomedans, and Seiks, the latter religion being most prevalent in the north-western quarter, which is almost entirely occupied by petty Seik states. The principal towns of the province are Delhi, Bareilly, Pillibeet, Shahjehanpoor, Rampoor, Moradabad, Anopshehr, Merut, Seerdhuna, Saharunpoor, Pattialah, Ambahlah, and Sirhind, under which heads, and the territorial subdivisions respectively, further local details will be found.

THE ASSIGNED TERRITORIES OF DELHI.—On the expulsion of the Maharattas from Upper Hindostan in 1803, a large portion of territory (sometimes called the Delhi district) was assigned for the support of the emperor and royal household, consisting of a number of pergunnahs, the revenues of which continued so gradually to increase, that in 1814, they were not only sufficient to defray the expense of supporting the royal family, but left a considerable surplus applicable to general purposes. In 1813 the jumma or land assessment amounted to 12,56,505 rupees, and a further increase was looked for by the falling in of certain large jaghires by the death of the existing

incumbents. Indeed, from the investigation of Mr. Fortescue, the commissioner, it was discovered that this tract had been long subjected to most improvident alienations From the commencement of the reign of Baber to the conclusion of that of Alumgeer the Second, a space of 274 years, comprehending the reigns of nine emperors, not more than sixty-six villages appear to have been granted away in perpetuity, whereas, during the reign of Shah Allum (forty-eight years) not less than 122 were alienated for ever, and of these eighty-eight were transferred in perpetuity, without reference to the emperor, by the Viziers, Peshwas, Sindias, and other chiefs, who had usurped the privilege of alienating the national revenue simultaneously and co-existently

In 1820 the augmentation of what had hitherto been called the assigned territory had become so great, as to render a new arrangement necessary. A civil commissioner and four assistants, each having charge of a division, were in consequence appointed to superintend the revenue collection, judicature, and police, the military and political regulations still remaining with Sir David Ochterlony, the resident The name of Assigned Territory was also abandoned, it having always been, in fact, an integral part of the British dominions, and the commissioner (Mr Forte[illegible]ue), [illegible] specially directed to remove all intermediate agency between the sovereign of the soil and the ryot or cultivator —(Public MS Documents [illegible] White, Metcalfe, Fortescue, Fullarton Blane, Tickell, &c)

THE CITY OF DELHI.

(*Dilli, in Sanscrit, Indraprest'ha*)

The ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul empires, situated in lat. 28° 41′ N, lon 77° 5′ E During the splendid era of Delhi, according to popular tradition, it covered a space of twenty square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly as great an extent; but notwithstanding its great antiquity, and the long period of time during which it has ranked as the first city of Hindostan, there in nothing in its locality particularly attractive, the adjacent soil being rather of a sterile than fruitful description, and the river unnavigable during the dry season for boats of any considerable burthen. Under these disadvantages, however, it had become a city of great fame and magnitude before the Mahomedan invasion, when it was distinguished by the Hindoo books of mythological history by the appellation of Indraprast'ha In A D. 1631, the emperor Shah Jehan founded the city of New Delhi on the west bank of the Jumna, which he named Shahjehanabad It is about seven miles in circumference, and a large sum has been recently expended in renovating its walls, which are now in a good st te of repair, and faced along their whole extent with substantial masonry, constructed of large blocks of a bright grey granite. Martello towers have been likewise erected at intervals for the purpose of flanking the defences, the old bastions being at too great distances from each other to answer that end effectually

The city has seven gates, viz Lahore gate, Ajmeer-gate, Turkoman-gate, D[illegible]-gate, Mohur gate, and Cashmere gate [illegible]. [illegible] Ajmeer [illegible] [illegible] Mad[illegible] The tomb of one founder [illegible] the [illegible] of its [illegible] of [illegible] also the [illegible] Kummer [illegible] Khan and [illegible] the [illegible] Within the city of Shahjehan [illegible] or New Delhi, are the remains of [illegible] palaces which formerly belonged to the great omrahs of the empire. Among the largest are those of Kummer ud Deen Khan, Ali Merdan Khan, Ghazi ud Deen Khan and Sefdar Jung There are also the garden and palace of Coodseah Begum, the mother of the emperor Mahomed Shah, the palace of Saadit

Khan, and that of Sultan Dara Shekoh, the unfortunate brother of Aurengzebe. The first is now a dilapidated ruin, and the last has been convered into an English dwelling, and is now occupied by the resident They are all surrounded by high walls, and take up a considerable space of ground, as they comprehend baths, stables for all sorts of animals, and music galleries, besides an extensive seraglio

In this quarter of Delhi are many very fine mosques, still in good repair, the chief of which is the Jumma Musjeed, or great cathedral, elevated above the rest of the city, and a truly noble structure, begun by Shah Jehan in the fourth, and completed in the tenth year of his reign It is composed partly of the fine dark red sandstone, and partly of white marble. Not far from the palace is the mosque of Roushen ud Dowlah, where, in 1739, Nadir Shah sat, and saw the massacre of the unfortunate inhabitants Besides these there are forty other mosques, some of which bear the marks of considerable antiquity This applies more particularly to the black mosque, a large and gloomy edifice of dark coloured granite, whose rude internal columns, cloistered area, numerous low cupolas, and lofty outer walls, devoid of aperture or ornament, denote an origin coeval with the earlier Afghan dynasties. Other curious remains of Afghan architecture are to be found in the plain to the south of the city, and in the fortress of Selimghur, which, both in their style and workmanship, form a remarkable contrast with the light, graceful, and highly decorated structures of the Moguls.

The modern city of Delhi contains many good houses, mostly of brick. The streets are in general narrow, with the exception of two, the first leading direct from the palace to the Delhi gate, which is 1,100 yards long by thirty broad; the second from the palace to the Lahore gate, which is a mile long by forty yards in breadth. The first has an aqueduct down the middle, now again repaired and supplied with water from the restored canal of Ali Merdan Khan. Cotton cloths and indigo are still manufactured in the town and neighbourhood, and a manufactory of shawls has recently been established with success by an enterprizing Hindoo merchant, who imports the wool, and has engaged native Cashmerian weavers to superintend the looms The chief imports are by the northern caravans, which bring from Cashmere and Cabul shawls, fruit, and horses. Precious stones of a good quality are to be had at Delhi, particularly the large red and black cornelians and peerozas, beedree hookah bottoms are also manufactured here The cultivation in the neighbourhood is chiefly on the banks of the Jumna, where wheat, rice, millet, and indigo are raised

The city was formerly partitioned into thirty-six divisions, each named after a particular nobleman who at some period had his residence in that quarter, or from some local circumstance The modern Delhi is built on two rocky eminences. The palace was built by the emperor Shah Jehan, it stands on the west bank of the Jumna, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of red stone, thirty feet high and above a mile in circumference Part of the interior is now (1819) occupied by a public bazar, and the once splendid hall of the Dewan Aum, with many other principal buildings, have been long consigned to filth and neglect. Some structures, however, still remain in sufficient preservation, more especially the Dewan Khas, or chief hall of audience (an open quadrangular arcaded terrace of white marble, richly ornamented with mosaic work and sculptures in relievo), and the small but beautiful marble chapel of Aurengzebe, to impress the beholder with a just conviction of the former magnificence of the Mogul monarchy. The walls of the palace are intended for defence as well as seclusion, and are preserved with great care. The gardens of Shalimar were formed by the emperor Shah Jehan, and are

said to have cost one million sterling. Hardly a vestige of its former state now remains, except one small building, probably once an apartment of Shah Jehan's palace, but now comprizing part of a house occupied by the British resident. The area has been converted into a neat park, and the verdure of its orange-groves forms an agreeable contrast with the black and arid aspect of the adjacent country. They appear to have occupied about one mile in circumference, and were surrounded by a high brick wall. The prospect to the southward of Shalimar, as far as the eye can reach, is covered with the remains of extensive gardens, pavilions, mosques, and sepulchres, all desolate and in ruins. The observatory is in the vicinity of Delhi, where it was erected by Raja Jeysingh, in the third year of the emperor Mahomed Shah, but it has since been repeatedly plundered, and the instruments destroyed.

The ruins of old Delhi cover the plain for an extent of nearly eight miles to the south of the modern Shahjehanabad, and connect that city with the village of Cuttub, exhibiting throughout this vast tract one of the most striking scenes of desolation to be met with throughout the whole world. Some of the gates, caravanserais, and mosques of the ancient city are still tolerably entire, but the objects most worthy of attention are two splendid mausoleums of the Emperor Humayoon and Seldar Jung, the second vizier of Oude, the smaller but not less elegant sepultures of Khaneh Azim, the emperor Mahomed Shah, and Jehanara Begum, daughter of Shah Jehan, the fort of Shere Shah, the temporary reviver of the Patan dynasty, and the curious remains of old forts and other buildings ascribed to the emperor Feroze Shah. In 1823 Capt. Tickell recommended to government to have a regular plan of the city and suburbs of Delhi executed by a European engineer, a document which would no doubt prove highly interesting to the public at large. Besides this, it would greatly facilitate the tracing of the aqueducts which formerly conveyed water to the numerous gardens, &c. in and about that city, which the inhabitants, since the restoration of the Delhi canal, are daily searching after, and clearing out the sand and rubbish with which they are choked up.

Although the present population of this city will bear no comparison with that of the time of Aurengzebe, when it was reported at two millions, yet it has certainly largely increased since it came under the protection of the British government. The commodious situation of Delhi for a great inland mart, for the interchange of commodities between India and the countries to the north and west, has, under the circumstances of security which property now enjoys, compensated in some degree for the reduced expenditure of the imperial court, and there are perhaps few, if any, of the ancient cities of Hindostan, which at the present moment will be found to rival modern Delhi in the wealth of its bazars, or in the activity and other indications of a numerous and busy population. The travelling distance from Calcutta by the Birboom road is 976 miles.

The Jumna overflows here during the rainy season to a wide extent, but, unlike the Ganges, does not confer fertility. In this part of its course it is so strongly impregnated with natron, extensive beds of which abound in the neighbourhood, that its waters destroy vegetation instead of promoting it, and the whole space between the high banks of the river, while in its low state, is a loose and perfectly barren sand, like that of the sea-shore. It most unfortunately happened that during the year 1824, amidst all the other misfortunes of drought and scarcity, the Jumna changed its course, and the canal became dry. The sufferings of the inhabitants were great, water was brought from a considerable distance (the wells during the existence of the

sold high, and the gardens were quite ruined. It was not until the middle of November that the canal could be restored, when its approach was hailed again, with similar expressions of joy as when it made its appearance

Rajas of Delhi or Indraprast'ha are mentioned by the Mahomedan historians so early as A.D. 1008, and in 1011 the city was taken and plundered by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, but restored to the raja as a tributary.

A D

1193. Cutub ud Deen, the slave of Mahomed Gauri, took possession of Delhi from the Hindoo princes, and commenced the series of Afghan or Patan sovereigns, which reigned until the invasion of Baber, the great grandson of Timour

1210. Taje ud Deen ascended the throne

1210. Aram Shah.

1210 Shums ud Deen Altumsh

1235 Mallekeh Doran, Sultana Resiah

1239. Byram Shah

1242. Allah ud Deen, Massud Shah.

1244. Nassir ud Deen

1265. Yeaz ud Deen Bulin

1286 Kaicobad

1289. Feroze Shah Khiljie.

1295 Secunder Sani.

1316 Shaheb ud Deen Omar.

1317. Mubaric Shah

1324. Sultan Mahomed.

1351. Sultan Feroze the second.

1382. Aboubecre Shah.

1393. Nassir ud Deen Mahmood Shah. Timour crossed the Indus in 1398, and took and pillaged Delhi during the reign of this prince, with whom, in 1413, ended the Afghan princes of the Khiljee tribe. Timour died in A.D. 1405, in his 71st year.

1413. Dowlet Khan Lodi.

1414. Khizzer Khan.

1421. Mubaric Shah the second.

1433. Mahomed Shah the second.

1446. Allah ud Deen the second.

1450. Beloli Lodi. During this and several of the preceding reigns, Hindostan was divided into separate states, for in the Deccan, Gujerat, Malwa, Juanpoor, and Bengal, there were princes who assumed the style and dignity of kings The districts also in the immediate vicinity of Delhi were occupied by different chiefs, who scarcely even in appearance acknowledged the supremacy of the Delhi sovereign.

1488 Secunder Ben Lodi

1516. Ibrahim Lodi. In A.D. 1525 this prince was defeated at Paniput by Sultan Baber, who the same year took possession of Delhi, and abolished the Afghan or Patan dynasty.

1525. Sultan Baber, who founded what has since been called the Mogul empire, yet he, like his ancester Timour, was a Turk, or native of Turkistan, and in his memoirs always speaks of the Moguls in strong terms of dislike and resentment. Under these circumstances, it seems a strange caprice of fortune that the empire he founded in Hindostan should have been called, both in the country and by foreigners, the empire of the Moguls, thus receiving its distinctive name from an alien and hostile race, which he detested. This arose not so much from his being, through Timour, a reputed descendant of Gengis Khan (who was a genuine Mogul), as from his being a foreigner from the north; and from the age of Gengis Khan downwards, all Tartars and Persians, in the loose colloquial language of India, seem to have been denominated Moguls. Tartar and Tartary are two other misnomers. The last by Asiatics is universally called Turkistan, and the first was the name of a small tribe of Moguls, who usually leading the van in Gengis Khan's army, their name was carried into Europe by the terrified and fugitive inhabitants of the countries he desolated, and gradually em-

A.D.

ployed to designate the whole of Central Asia.

1530. Humayoon, the eldest son of Baber. This prince was expelled by Shere Shah the Afghan; but after the death of the latter, recovered possession, and was succeeded by his son,

1556 Acber the first. This prince was born at Amerkote in 1542, proclaimed emperor in 1556, and died at Agra in 1605. He was the greatest of all the sovereigns of Delhi His vizier, Abul Fazel, was murdered by some banditti in the forty-seventh year of his age.

1605. Jehanghire.

1628. Shah Jehan.

1658. Aurengzebe, died the 21st February 1707

1707. Shah Allum the first, the eldest son of Aurengzebe; died by poison in 1712.

1712 Jehandaur Shah, dethroned and killed the same year.

1712. Ferokhsere, assassinated in 1719.

1719. Rufieh ul Dirjat, a child; died in 1720, after a reign of three months.

1720. Mahomed Shah the third, died in 1747. In 1735 the Maharattas made such progress that they burned the suburbs of Delhi. Nadir Shah entered Delhi on the 9th of March 1739, and on the 14th April began his retreat, having collected immense plunder.

1747. Ahmed Shah, who in 1753 was dethroned and blinded.

1753. Alumgeer the second. He was assassinated in 1756, which year Ahmed Shah Abdalli, of Cabul, first entered Delhi.

1756. Shah Jehan the second, dethroned in 1760.

1761. Shah Allum the second. This monarch commenced his reign by an unprovoked and ill-conducted attack on the British in Bengal and Bahar, then recently acquired; but finding himself baffled and defeated, he soon after voluntarily surrendered himself in the British camp, without treaty, condition or stipulation. On the acquisition of the Dewanny in 1765, a pension of twenty-six lacks of rupees was settled on him, with a considerable tract of fertile territory in Upper Hindostan; both of which he forfeited in 1771, by quitting the protection of his benefactors, and repairing to Delhi, where he became a prisoner and political instrument, under the custody of the Maharattas, who about 1770 had acquired possession of that city. In 1788, Gholaum Kaudir, the Rohilla, having by a sudden irruption made himself master of Delhi, seized the unfortunate emperor, and after exposing him for many weeks to every species of insult and degradation, in order to extort the disclosure of supposed concealed treasures, concluded by piercing his eyes with a dagger, so as completely to extinguish the sight For the attainment of the same object, he massacred, starved to death, and tortured many of the royal family and of the chief inhabitants of Delhi; but being compelled to evacuate the city by a detachment from the army of Madhajee Sindia, he was captured during his flight, and expired under the tortures he had so mercilessly inflicted.

Nor was the misery of the Mogul emperor's condition much alleviated by the transfer in jaghire, which about this period took place, of Delhi and some adjacent territory, to the French officers commanding the corps of disciplined infantry retained in the service of Madhajee, and afterwards of his nephew Dowlet Row Sindia; for although he came successively under the ostensible superintendence of M. de Boigne, M. Perron, and M. Drugeon, he effectually remained a prisoner in the hands of the native Maharatta officers, and subjected to all their proverbial rapacity. During

1802, when there were fifty-two sons and daughters of the emperor, the monthly stipend allowed to each prince of the imperial family did not exceed fifteen rupees per month (£21 per annum); and the sums disbursed by M. Drugeon, who had charge of the emperor's person, for the aggregate expenses of his majesty, the royal family, dependants, and establishments, amounted only to 17,000 rupees per month, or £23,664 per annum; while the Maharattas retained and converted to their own use all the gardens and houses in and about the city that were royal property, and perpetrated the most atrocious crimes, in the name of their royal prisoner, for the purposes of fraud and extortion.

Such was the desolation of this ancient capital in 1803, when Lord Lake, having defeated the army of Dowlet Row Sindia, six miles from Delhi, on the 11th September, entered it next day, to the infinite joy of the aged emperor; and the Maharatta sway being subsequently completely annihilated in Upper Hindostan by a series of discomfitures, the Bengal government proceeded to make arrangements for his support. As a commencement, all the houses, gardens, and lands, of which the royal family were deprived by the Maharattas, were restored to them, and these soon became of great value from the increased security of property. It was also determined that a specified proportion of the territories in the vicinity of Delhi, situated on the right bank of the Jumna, should be assigned in part of the provision for the maintenance of the royal family, these lands to remain under the charge of the resident at Delhi, but the revenue to be collected and justice administered in the name of the emperor Shah Allum, under regulations to be promulgated by the supreme government That his Majesty should be permitted to appoint a dewan and other inferior functionaries, to attend the office of the collector, for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting to his majesty the amount of the receipts, and satisfying his mind that no part of the revenue of the assigned territory was misappropriated. That two courts should be established for the distribution of civil and criminal justice, according to the Mahomedan law, to the inhabitants of Delhi and the assigned territory; but that no sentence of the criminal court extending to the punishment of death should be carried into execution without the express sanction of his Majesty, to whom the proceedings in all trials of this description should be reported, and all sentences of mutilation to be commuted to hard labour and imprisonment. To provide for the immediate wants of his Majesty and the royal household, the following sums were ordered to be paid in money from the treasury of the resident at Delhi.

	Rs.
To his majesty for his private expenses.........per month	60,000
To the heir-apparent, exclusive of certain jaghires ...	10,000
To a favourite son of his majesty, named Mirza Izzet Buksh..	5,000
To his majesty's fifty sons and daughters	10,000
To Shah Nawaux Khan, his majesty's treasurer	2,500
To Seid Rizzer Khan, British agent at his court, and related to him by marriage...	2,500
Total, per month...	90,000

These amounting in all to £125,000 per annum, to be afterwards augmented to one lack of rupees per month, if the future produce of the assigned lands admitted of it, exclusive of all private property, and of 10,000 rupees, to be paid to his majesty on the celebration of certain festivals

The most urgent wants of the aged monarch and his family being supplied, various municipal improvements were effected, some of the canals were cleansed, the principal streets cleared of rubbish, and an efficient police established The punishment of mutilation was abolished in this and all the adjacent territories sub-

ject to the British jurisdiction; and a regulation was enacted, directing that when a person by the Mahomedan law was condemned to lose two limbs, the decree should be commuted to imprisonment and hard labour for fourteen years; and if one limb the same for seven years. The frequent assassinations that were customary during the Maharatta administration were effectually suppressed, more by the institution of regular courts, to which the aggrieved might appeal, than by sanguinary examples or any extension of the penal code. But in thus protecting the person, and increasing the comforts of the Mogul emperors, it was never intended by the British government to employ the royal prerogative as an instrument to establish any control over the different states and princes of India. An object of importance had been attained by his rescue from the custody of the French and Maharattas, who usurped his name to sanction their machinations for the subversion of the British empire in Hindostan, and detained in the most degraded condition of poverty and insult, this unfortunate representative of the house of Gengis, Timour, Baber, Acber, and Aurungzebe. The most rational course appeared to be, to leave the king's authority exactly in the state in which it was found, and to afford the royal family the means of subsistence, not merely in a style of comfort, but of decent splendour, not unsuitable to a fallen but illustrious race, to whose power the British nation had in a great measure succeeded.

From this period (Sept. 1803) the tranquillity of Delhi remained undisturbed until October 1804, when Holcar, who was retreating from Mathura before Lord Lake, sent his infantry, provided with a formidable train of artillery, to invest the city; and the siege was accordingly commenced on the seventh day of that month. Owing to a variety of pressing exigencies in other quarters, the garrison at this time was not only too small for the defence of so immense a city (the walls of which, besides their great extent, were accessible on all sides), but extremely faulty in its composition, consisting partly of 300 Mewaties, robbers by profession, and a body of irregular horse, whose fidelity could not be relied on. The Mewaties justified their previous character by going over to the enemy at an early stage of the siege; and the irregular horse their's, by flying on the approach of the enemy, who in consequence approached close up to the walls. Having opened their batteries a few days afterwards, and several breaches being effected, as much by the concussion of the guns on the crumbling ramparts as by the artillery, the enemy made an attempt to carry the place by escalade, in which they were repulsed, and soon afterwards their guns were spiked in the batteries, by a well-conducted sortie under Lieut Rose. Being thus baffled in all their endeavours, they moved off on the 15th October, although they had prepared their mines, laid under the bastions between the Turkoman and Ajmeer gates, one of them pushed directly under the bastion, and ready to be loaded. In this manner, by the judicious arrangement of Colonels Burn and Ochterlony, and the determined resistance of the garrison, a small force was enabled to sustain a siege of nine days, repelled an assault, and defended a city ten miles in circumference, which had ever been heretofore given up on the first appearance of an enemy.

Shah Allum survived this event until December 1806, when he finished a long and calamitous reign of forty-five years, in the eighty-third year of his life, and on the same day his oldest legitimate son Acber was placed on the throne. The succession of this prince was marked by the most unexampled tranquillity, the commencement of every prince's reign having been invariably stained with bloodshed, and disturbed by tumult and commotion. But although peace prevailed without, discord raged within the walls of the seraglio, and

Acber the second had scarcely been seated, when, at the instigation of unprincipled advisers, he commenced a series of intrigues, with the view of effecting the exclusion of his oldest son Abul Zuffer, aged thirty-two (to whom he had taken a preposterous aversion), and of procuring the sanction of the British government to the nomination of his fourth and favourite son Jehandar Shah, as Wulli Ahud, or heir-apparent. The causes of the different princes were supported by parties within the walls, and the most contemptible acts of meanness and absurdity practised by the different factions. The cause of the legitimate heir, however, was fast declining, owing to the unnatural hatred of his father, who being naturally weak, was perplexed by the artifices of his servants, among whom no honest man could remain without external support. Being entirely ignorant also of his relative situation to the British government, he persevered in his determination to alter the line of the succession, notwithstanding the reiterated remonstrances of the resident, who soon found that the effect of the kindness of the British government was quite destroyed by the impositions practised on him by his family and attendants, each of whom claimed the merit of accomplishing every measure in which his protectors acquiesced.

Accordingly, after several preliminary steps, Acber the second proceeded to the extremity of proclaiming his fourth son, Jehandar Shah, heir-apparent, under the pretext that the eldest was disqualified for such an elevation by the weakness of his intellects. In this emergency the interposition of the British government became necessary, and the resident at Delhi was in consequence directed to institute an investigation regarding the sanity or derangement of the legitimate successor. The result of this was highly favourable to him: and the fact being established, his majesty was informed, that it was an invariable maxim of British policy never to pass over the next in succession, and lawful claimant to the throne, unless circumstances were so strongly against him as to preclude all hopes of improvement or amendment, that in the present case no such urgency existed, as the heir-apparent's mind seemed quite equal to his duties, and that the evils which would originate from an irregular succession were too great to permit so momentous a deviation, merely for the possible benefit to be derived from a prince of greater abilities. Neither could any thing very satisfactory be expected from the conduct of such a sovereign as that of his favourite Jehandar Shah, whose youth, and whatever abilities he possessed, had been directed to the base purpose of supplanting his eldest brother. To prevent the recurrence of the miserable artifices which had so long distracted the interior of the seraglio, and now threatened the capital with commotion, Jehandar Shah was ordered to take up his residence at Allahabad.

The prosperity of the territories assigned in 1803 for the support of his majesty and the royal family, continuing progressive, in 1812 his stipend was augmented to one lack of rupees per month, or £139,200 per annum. On their first acquisition in 1803, they were leased on a triennial settlement, and the first year they yielded only 3,53,952 rupees (£41,058); but so rapidly did a few years of tranquillity and good government ameliorate the condition of the cultivators, and the productive powers of the land, that in 1814 they realized 12,56,505 rupees, or £145,754. Nor did the ancient and venerable capital experience less benefit from the transfer than the surrounding territory, although the effects were not so quickly perceptible; and no improved system of government could wholly compensate for the absence of a splendid and luxurious court. Ever since the death of Aurengzebe, when it was loosely estimated at two millions, the population of Delhi had been gradually decreasing, and under the Sin-

dia family its decline was so uninterrupted, that the land within its walls became of little or no value to the owners, who carelessly disposed of their rights for any trifle of ready money, and frequently to escape extortion disclaimed their properties altogether. Of this supineness they had subsequent cause to repent, for no sooner had the city surrendered to Lord Lake, than the value of the houses and lands within the walls instantaneously doubled, and have been ever since progressively increasing.

Among the most magnificent and useful memorials of the taste and splendour of the emperor Shah Jehan remaining at Delhi is the well belonging to the Jumma Musjeed (chief mosque or cathedral), which had been excavated at an immense expense out of the solid rock on which that edifice stands. The water is raised by complicated machinery and a succession of reservoirs to the area of the mosque, where at the top of a grand flight of stairs it fills a small fish-pond, and is of great utility to all ranks of persons, but more especially to the Mahomedans in the performance of their prescribed ablutions. For many years the decayed state of the principal wheels, and the ruinous condition of the machinery, rendered the supply of water both difficult to procure and extremely limited in quantity. At length, in 1809, it completely failed, and the consequences during the intensity of the hot season were extremely distressing to the inhabitants, and excited considerable interest in the mind of the emperor. Under these circumstances, Mr. Seton, the resident at Delhi, conceiving that the repair of the well at the expense of the British government would be highly gratifying to the inhabitants, authorized its being put in a state of repair, and the expense incurred was subsequently sanctioned by the authorities in Calcutta.

No regular census of the inhabitants has ever been taken, and any attempt at an actual enumeration would be viewed with jealousy and distrust, by a people naturally averse to innovation, or to any new arrangement tending to bring them more under observation, or likely to impose on them either additional duties or expense. From a concurrence of circumstances it probably approaches, if it does not exceed, 200,000, while Agra, its ancient rival, has retrograded to 60,000 persons. But, notwithstanding its comparatively reduced condition, a feeling is still prevalent all over India that the power possessing Delhi and the king's person is virtually ruler of Hindostan, and under this impression many independent states have repeatedly applied to be received as subjects and tributaries, complaining of the refusal as a dereliction of duty on the part of the British government. For a great many years, applications of this nature had been most pressingly urged by the Rajas of Joudpoor, Jeypoor, Bicanere, Jesselmere, Assam, and Cachar, the nabobs of Mooltan and Behawulpoor, by the numerous petty states so long harassed by the depredations of Sindia, Holcar, Ameer Khan, and other plunderers, but never acceded to until the arrangement of the federal system in 1818, and altogether unconnected with the Mogul dynasty.

For the same reason, although the Delhi emperor had long been deprived of all real dominion, before political events brought him under the British government, almost every state and every class of people in India still continue to revere his nominal authority. Until recently, the current coin of every established power was struck in his name, and many princes of the highest rank bore titles and displayed insignia which they or their ancestors derived from this source; and the Delhi sovereign, amidst all his vicissitudes was still considered the only legitimate fountain of similar honours. In conformity with this notion it was usual, when a Hindoo prince succeeded to his deceased father, to solicit the Mogul to honour him with a teeka, as a mark of investiture, or at least

of royal approbation, which ceremony consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruized sandal-wood; for although this unction had long ceased to be a necessary token of confirmation of the successor's right, it was still considered a gratifying mark of distinction.

The universality of this impression throughout Hindostan may be further illustrated by the conduct of the Tamburetty or princess of Travancore, a genuine Hindoo state situated near Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the region, and at no period of its history subject to the Mogul or to any Mahomedan sovereign. In the year 181[illegible] she applied to the [illegible] a dress of investiture for her son, the infant raja, although he was under the special guardianship of the British government. The favour she applied for was refused, and she was apprized of the inutility of the ceremony as a mark of confirmation, as well as the folly of making an unmeaning reference to the validity of her son's title to a power, which neither claimed nor exercised a right to grant or withhold it, yet she could not be convinced that the ceremonial was wholly superfluous. Under existing circumstances, his majesty's assumption of legitimate authority is altogether incompatible with the situation in which providence has placed him: his granting dresses of investiture was accordingly prohibited, both as impolitic, and as adding nothing to the validity of the succession. The same objection did not apply to the granting of titles (through the agency of the British government), but even this phantom of former dignity was almost annihilated in 1819 by the conduct of Ghazi ud Deen, the reigning nabob of Oude, who that year renounced all titular subservience to the throne of Delhi, assuming of his own authority the title of king instead of vizier of Oude, and issuing at the same time a new currency impressed with his own name and legend, but of the same weight and standard as before; which change was cheerfully, but with doubtful policy, acquiesced in by the British government.

The king being a man of weak intellect, and quite infatuated with the idea of his own importance, was much disposed to encourage applications similar to that of the Tamburetty, because they at once gratified his visions of departed dignity, and proved a source of emolument to his servants and to the hordes of intriguers by which he was surrounded. The exercise of such authority, however, is completely at variance with the scheme of British policy, the fundamental maxim of which is, that it should never deviate from the charge of protecting and supporting his majesty, to the prejudice of employing the royal prerogative as an instrument for establishing any control or ascendency over the states of India, or of asserting on the part of his Majesty any of the claims which, in his capacity of emperor of Hindostan, this prince may consider himself to possess upon the provinces formerly composing the Mogul empire. The British power in India is of too substantial a nature, to incur the hazard of resorting to the dangerous expedient of borrowing any portion of its authority from the lustre of the Mogul name; it could not, therefore, permit his interference to withdraw the inhabitants from their obedience to their actual superiors, or that he should attempt to convert his nominal into any thing like a real supremacy. From the emperor nothing was derived by the British government; and in return for the rescue of himself and family from a state of penury and degradation, and his support in comparative comfort and affluence under its protection, he is only required to live peaceably, and to abandon all dreams of ancient grandeur.

At present the British resident at Delhi exercises a most extensive authority, and the office is always filled by one of the ablest and most experienced of the public functionaries, as may be inferred from the following detail of his duties. He has the exclusive charge of the emperor and

royal family; conducts the negociations with the Raja of Lahore; takes cognizance of all political events in the north-west of India; superintends the ex-king of Cabul at Luddeana, the protected Seik and hill chiefs, the Nabobs Fyze Mahomed Khan, Ahmed Buksh Khan, the Rajas of Bhurtpoor, Macherry, Dhoolpoor, Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Jesselmere, Bicanere, Kotah, Boondee, Odeypoor, Sarowy, the Bhatty and Mewatty chiefs, Ameer Khan, and various other chiefs of less importance. The present heir apparent, Mirza Abou Zuffer (1827), about forty-two years of age, is a respectable man, with more talents than most native princes, and has a predilection for literary pursuits, being fond of poetry, and himself a tolerable Persian poet but addicted to strong liquors, and in consequence prematurely aged.—(*Public MS. Documents, the Marquis Wellesley, Fullarton, Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, Franklin, Malcolm, Gladwin, Ferishta, Maurice, &c.*)

DELHI CANAL.—See DELHI PROVINCE.

DELLAMCOTTA (*Dalimcata*).—A fortress which commands the principal entrance into Bootan from the south-west. It was taken by storm in 1773 by a detachment under Capt. John Jones; the fame of which exploit spread through the mountains, and greatly alarmed the Bootanners and Tibetians; but it was restored by Mr. Hastings through the intercession of the Teshoo Lama. The same importance is not now attached to Dellamcotta since it is known that it could be easily turned by a detachment from Naggree in Sikkim.

DELLI.—A town and petty state in the island of Sumatra, situated in a low swampy country on a river of the same name; lat. 3°46′ N., lon. 98°42′ E. In 1823 Delli was bounded on the N.W. by Sungei Buoalan, N.E. by the sea; S.W. by Sungei Tuan, and on the south by a great Batta state named Scantar. The Delli sultan also claims sovereignty over many small Malay communities in that quarter; but is himself overruled by eight ministers, whom he is obliged to consult on all important exigencies. The caliph is the head of the church, which is pure Islamism, mosques of various sizes are consequently abundant. The town of Delli is a rude assemblage of mean dirty huts on both sides of the river, and in 1820 scarcely contained 1,200 persons. The river is navigable for canoes one day's journey inland, where there are many Malay settlers, mostly engaged in the cultivation of pepper.

In 1823 Mr. Anderson estimated the Malay population of all descriptions at 7,000 persons, exclusive of the Batta states of the interior. The chief of these are Scantar, Tanah, Jawa, Selow, and Sibaya Linga, from whence iron, gambir, ivory, cotton, pepper, pulse, tobacco, gold, horses, and slaves are imported. The Karankaran Battas in this quarter write from the left to the right, while the great cannibal raja of Munto Panei writes with a knife on the joint of a bamboo from the bottom to the top. Slaves were formerly plentiful here, and exported to Penang, where their condition, and more especially that of the females, was greatly ameliorated as compared with their aboriginal servitude, for in all communities in a similar stage of society, the fate of the whole female sex is that of a laborious, hopeless thankless slavery. In A.D. 1613, Iskander Mada, king of Acheen, styled himself king of Delli, which threw off the yoke about 1669. In 1823 the reigning sultan was Allum Shah, which being translated, signifies "the world's king."—(*Anderson, Lucas, Crooke, &c.*)

DEOBUND.—A considerable town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, about twenty-four miles from the town of Saharunpoor, lat. 29°40′ N., lon. 77°40′ E. This is a place of some trade, and contains besides several entire streets of brick houses, inhabited chiefly by Brahmins. There are also two small modern

mosques, a serai, and the remains of an old fort of considerable extent.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Deo Dhoora Temple.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles S.E. from Almora, lat. 29° [illegible] N., lon. 79° 50′ E. 6,780 feet above the level of the sea.

Deodhur.—A town situated in that portion of the Guzerat province named the Kakreze, about [illegible] miles S. by E. from [illegible]; lat. 24° 1′ N., lon. 71° 35′ E. In 1809 the chief of this place [illegible] 60 horse and 200 foot, [illegible] these were reduced to [illegible] horse and 123 foot.

Deodura.—A village in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, [illegible] twenty-seven miles travelling distance W.S.W. from Almora. This small hamlet, inhabited [illegible] Brahmins, is romantically situated [illegible] a grove of deodar pines [illegible] brink of a wooded precipice, commanding an extensive prospect [illegible] north as far as the snowy [illegible]. There is here a small temple [illegible] singularly situated in the [illegible] crevice of a rock, accessible [illegible] a dark horizontal passage, which perforates the body of the rock. Deodura being on the road from [illegible] to Lohoo ghaut, a small [illegible] been erected by government [illegible] accommodation of travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Deoghir.—See Dowlatabad.

Deoghur (*Devaghara*).—A large district in the province of Gundwana, situated principally between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude, and comprizing an important portion of the raja of Nagpoor's dominions. From its geographical position it is usually separated into two divisions, Deoghur above the Ghauts and Deoghur below the ghauts.

Deoghur above the ghauts is an elevated tract looking down to the north on the valley of the Nerbudda, and to the south on the plains of Nagpoor, occupying a portion of the Vindhyan table-land and hills lying south of the Nerbudda. It may be said to consist of a regular succession of hill and dale, formed by the larger and smaller ranges of hills that cover its surface, whose general direction is east and west. The most elevated of these ridges rises in the high land of Bhutkaghur, and from the western extremity the mass of the Mahadeo mountains, the highest of which is Dhoopghur. Throughout its whole [illegible] this ridge can be approached [illegible] the south and north [illegible] ghauts, more or [illegible] from the south [illegible] the easiest. At the [illegible] ridge lies a beautiful valley [illegible] from Chuparah east to Hatta [illegible] west.

The country to the south of this table land or Deoghur below the ghauts is [illegible] by various ranges [illegible] branching off from the Vindhyan mountains, and mostly covered with [illegible] stones and jungle, and broken with ravines and vallies. The region [illegible] situated between the [illegible] Wyne Gunga, and [illegible] southward as far as [illegible] generally open [illegible] watered by several [illegible] and chequered [illegible] and low ridges.

[illegible] history of the [illegible] is quite unknown [illegible] prior to the reign [illegible] Bukht Boolund, contemporary with Aurengzebe, they had made considerable progress in the subjugation of the country below the ghauts. Bukht Boolund, who to conciliate the imperial favour had turned Mahomedan, made great additions to his territories, and possessed the spot on which Nagpoor now stands, but, like the rest of his dominions, in a very savage condition. This Gond potentate usually remained in the districts above the ghauts, except when prosecuting his military expeditions. Towards the conclusion of Aurungzebe's reign, he plundered Berar and other provinces of the Delhi emperors, although he was still in the habit of transmitting tribute to that

city. At that era Pownar was the chief seat of the Mogul government east of the Warda river. On the death of Bukht Boolund dissensions arose in his family, and Ragojee Bhoonsla was called in to settle their disputes, which ended in his usurping their territories.

Deoghur and Chanda formed the nucleus of the Bhoonsla dominions, but in both the original principles of the Gond system were the same. The rajas at first were little more than the feudal superiors of a number of petty chiefs, whose relations and dependants contributed nothing but military service. In progress of time they attracted the attention of the Deccany Mahommedan sovereigns, and ultimately became tributary to the throne of Delhi, ambitious of the distinction lavished by that court as a source of influence over tribes still unconquered, and of pride as adding a number of barbarous races to the list of their nominal subjects.

The Gond rajas of Deoghur and Chanda are said at different times to have made their appearance at Delhi, and one of the most eminent having become Mussulmaun to ensure the imperial favour under the name of Bukht Boolund (high fortune), his family still continue of that persuasion. Under his reign civilization made considerable advances in Gundwana, as he attracted many foreigners into that province by bestowing employments on them: he also founded many towns and villages and protected commerce. His court was also the resort of military adventurers from all quarters, many of whose descendants still remain. With their assistance he made conquests from Chanda and Mundala, and he availed himself of the convulsions in the Deccan which originated from Aurungzebe's interminable conflicts with the Maharattas. On his death domestic disputes arose among his descendants, which rendered them an easy prey to foreign invaders. After the conquest of Deoghur, the Bhoonsla family still allowed the title of raja to the Gond princes, with a small share of the revenue; and the respectful attention due to the ancient family is still carefully, and even ostentatiously observed, for the Gond raja gives the tika, or stamp of royalty, to the Bhoonsla sovereigns on their ascending the guddy or throne.

In 1825 the inhabited towns in Deoghur below the ghauts were sixty-four, the inhabited villages 2,011, and the total population 572,792 persons, within an area of about 6,000 square miles. In 1818-19, under the British system of collection, the revenue amounted to 14,98,134 rupees, in 1825 to 16,46,607 rupees. Cultivation had greatly decayed at the first period, but at the last was annually increasing.

Deoghur above the ghauts, when it came under the British system, was found to have suffered in an equal degree with the other parts of the Nagpoor dominions, from the ruinous system of Ragojee the second, from the ravages of the Gonds, and more especially from Appa Saheb's residence in this elevated region. The tanks here are few and of no importance, the sugar cultivation for which this district is noted being carried on by means of wells. In 1824 the collection of the land revenue amounted to 258,221 rupees; the number of inhabited villages was 1,241, the total population 145,363 persons.—(*Jenkins, &c.*)

DEOGHUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-nine miles N. by E. from Ditteah, lat. 26° 5′ N., lon. 78° 3′ E.

DEOGHUR.—A pass in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Odeypoor. The predominating rock here is quartz, which abounds every where in this part of Rajpootana, whole peaks of it appearing pure, white, and glittering like snow, mingled with masses of a flesh colour.—(*James Fraser, &c.*)

DEOGHUR.—See BAIDYANATH.

DEOGHUR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, eighty-three miles S.W.

from Hussingabad; lat. 21° 43′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E.

DEOGHURWARA.—A village in the province of Malwa, division of Oojein, situated under the hills about five miles S.E. from Indore, and remarkable for a sacred spring that rises in an adjacent cavern. The water is tepid, and a gateway and reservoir, with a temple of Mahadeva in the centre, have been constructed at the mouth of the cavern.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

DEOHRA.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, five miles west from the Pabur river; lat. 31° 6′ N., lon. 77° 40′ E.

DEOLA (*or Dewla*).—A fortified town in the province of Malwa, division of Kantul, in 1820 the residence of the Pertaubghur raja; lat. 24° 3′ N., lon. 74° 44′ E., eight miles west of Pertaubghur, and 1,770 feet above the level of the sea. The surrounding country is extremely rugged and jungly, but the trees are of good growth. The town contains some well-built stone houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

DEONELLA (*or Deonhully*). — A town in the Mysore territories, twenty-three miles N N.E. from Bangalore; lat. 13° 14′ N., lon 77° 47′ E

DEO TAL LAKE.—A small mountain lake or loch in Northern Hindostan, twenty-six miles E N.E from Gangoutri; lat. 31° 4′ N, lon 79° 24′ E. Immediately north there is a pass into Tibet, the summit of which has been estimated at 18,000 feet above the level of the sea.

DERA GHAZI KHAN —A town and small district in the Afghan territories, situated on the left bank of the Indus; lat. 29° 50′ N, lon. 70° 20′ E, forty miles from Mooltan. This tract lies between the Indus and Baloochistan, and is subject to the Cabul sovereign, to whom, in 1809, it yielded a revenue of five lacks of rupees. In 1821 it is described as a populous town, inhabited by Durranies and merchants. — (*Elphinstone, James Fraser, &c.*)

DERA ISHMAEL KHAN.—A town in Afghanistan, the capital of the Damaun province, and situated on the west bank of the Indus; lat. 31° 50′ N., lon. 70° 33′ E. It stands in a large wood of date-trees about 100 yards from the Indus, and in 1809 had a ruined wall of unburned bricks about one mile and a-half in circumference. The inhabitants are mostly Balooches, but there are also some Afghans and Hindoos; the peasantry are Juts and Balooches. There are also some hordes of wandering shepherds encamped on different parts of this extensive plain. In 1809 the embassy to Cabul halted here for several weeks.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

DERIAH KHAN.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the east side of the Indus; lat. 31° 53′ N, lon 70° 45′ E.

DESAN RIVER.—This ranks as the second river of Bundelcund, after the Ken It rises in the Vindhya chain of mountains, and proceeds with a northerly course until it joins the Betwa near Chandwar, after an independent course of 220 miles. It is too rocky to be navigable, but is well stocked with fish.—(*Franklin, &c.*)

DESSYE —A small town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, the cusba or head of a pergunnah of the same name; lat. 22° 43′ N, lon 75° 13′ E.

DEUCAR.—A town in Northern Hindostan, subject to the Nepaulese, fifty-one miles N.E. from Baraitche; lat. 28° 8′ N., lon. 82° E.

DEVAPRAYAGA (*the union of the gods*).—One of the five principal prayagas (holy junctions where two or more rivers meet) mentioned in the shastras, situated in Northern Hindostan, district of Gurwal, twelve miles west from Serinagur; lat. 30° 9′ N., lon 78° 33′ E. The town stands at the confluence of the rivers, and is built on the scarp of a mountain about 100 feet above the water, the mountain rising about 800 feet higher. The houses are in general two stories high, built of large stones, cemented

with coarse lime, and covered with shingles. In the upper part stands a temple sacred to Raghunath, or Ramachandra, constructed of large pieces of stone piled up without mortar, in height about sixty feet. The presiding deity is an image six feet high cut in black stone, with the lower part painted red. In 1808 the town contained above 200 houses, inhabited by Brahmins of different sects, but principally those of Poona and the Deccan. The resident Brahmins being very ignorant persons, can give no information when or by whom the temple was erected, the only fact they are quite certain of is, that it has been in existence 10,000 years.

The sacred junction is formed by the streams of the Bhagirathi, or true Ganges, and Alacananda rivers, the last before their confluence being the most considerable stream, with a breadth of about 142 feet, and during the rainy season a depth of forty-six or forty-seven feet above low-water level The breadth of the Bhagirathi is 112 feet, and it is said to rise forty feet during the rains. The union of the two currents forms the Ganges, the breadth of which immediately below the junction is eighty yards.—(*Webb, &c.*)

Devicotta (*Devicata, the fort of the goddess*).—A town in the Carnatic province, district of Tanjore, situated near the junction of Coleroon river with the sea; lat. 11° 25′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E., thirty-seven miles south from Pondicherry. This place was taken from the raja of Tanjore by Major Lawrence in 1749, on which occasion Lieut. Clive particularly distinguished himself.—(*Orme, &c.*)

Devy.—A town in the Northern Circars, twenty-eight miles S.W. from Masulipatam, lat. 15° 53′ N., lon. 80° 57′ E.

Dewa River.—See Goggra River.

Dewass.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 1,187 inhabited houses and 5,930 persons; lat. 22° 59′ N., lon. 76° 10′ E. It stands about thirteen miles due north of Seindia, and has a good tank on the east side. Two miles further eastward is another small tank, the source of the little Kali Sinde river For the thirty years prior to 1817 the Puars of Dewass suffered the extreme of misery, having been so incessantly plundered and oppressed by Sindia, Holcar, and every Pindarry or freebooter of the day, that their being in existence, or possessing an inhabited village, appears almost a miracle. A pleasing contrast was presented in 1821, at which date Dewass, which had been almost deserted, had become a populous town, and 141 villages had been re-peopled. In 1819 the gross revenue was 1,09,375 rupees, which was expected to reach 6,00,000 in 1824.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Dewghur (*Devaghar*).—An island on the coast of the Bejapoor province, which commands a very fine harbour, where vessels of 600 tons may ride in safety during the monsoon. The river here is navigable a long way up, and there is a high road to the ghauts.

Dewilmurry (*Devalayamari*).—A village or hamlet in the province of Gundwana, situated on the east bank of the Baumgunga river, which is here a considerable stream, being augmented by the junction of the Wurda and Wainy Gunga rivers, about six miles to the north; lat 19° 7′ N., lon. 81° 30′ E, 150 miles N. from the town of Rajamundry. This is one of the most considerable Gond hamlets in the country, and has an extensive spot of ground cleared round it.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

Dewra.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-four miles south from Chatterpoor, lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 79° 37′ E.

Dewree.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, which in 1820 belonged to Zalim Singh of Kotah, and contained about 600 houses.

Dewsah.—A considerable town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-six

miles east from Jeypoor; lat. 26° 50′, lon. 76° 12′ E. This place stands on one side of a square table-like hill, with a sharp peak adjoining. The hill is crowned with a most extensive forest, and in 1824 there were other remains, such as those of large tanks, ruinous and dry, several tombs, and other vestiges of antiquity, all evincing that the place had seen better days. It is also a kind of second-rate place of pilgrimage, where a Hindoo fair and festival is occasionally held. The town is still surrounded by a ruined wall resembling that at Benares, and altogether the place is one extremely characteristic of the ancient habits of India.

Deybur Lake *(or Jey Saugur)*.—A lake in the province of Ajmeer, division of Mewar, about twenty-seven miles S.E. from the city of Odeypoor; lat. 24° 17′ N., lon. 74° 1′ E., 1,044 feet above the level of the sea. The Goometri river, which formerly burst through a narrow opening in the range of hills, is here arrested by a magnificent marble dam thrown across its bed. It presents a deep clear expanse of water, bounded on two sides by fine mountains, from 400 to 700 feet high, projecting abruptly into it. The other sides consist of lower elevations or ridges. The extreme length of the ridge is about eight miles, and its breadth from three to four miles. Near the centre are some woody hills, on the largest of which a Hindoo devotee has taken up his abode. A handsome palace and attendant buildings have been erected on the hill at its eastern end, and steps the whole length of the dyke or dam lead down to the water, ornamented with large figures of elephants, on high pedestals of a single block. The total height of the dyke to the water's edge is fifty-four feet; its length three furlongs, and breadth 110 yards. Owing to the premature death of its builder, Rana Jey Singh, it is in an unfinished state. Every part of it is faced with fine white marble, and the small buildings, elephants, &c. and all other decorations are of the same substance, which is abundant in the neighbouring range.—*(Dangerfield, &c.)*

Deypaulpoor *(Devapalapur)*.—A town in the province of Malwa belonging to Holcar, which in 1820 contained 1,035 houses; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 75° 35′ E., twenty-four miles N.W by W. from Indore. This place has a large tank on the east side from whence roads leads to Indore, Oojein, Dhar, &c. At the above date the pergunnah of Deypaulpoor contained 7,489 houses, and, including the town, yielded a revenue of 1,00,000 rupees.—*(Malcolm, &c.)*

Deyrah Doon *(Deira Dun)*.—A valley in Northern Hindostan, province of Gurwal, situated between the Jumna and Ganges rivers, which was ceded to the British government by the Nepaulese in 1815, and subsequently annexed to the district of North Saharunpoor. This valley or strath is separated from the Gangetic plain by a low serrated range of wooded hills, which, although it appears to cross the Ganges, and to penetrate for some distance into Rohilcund, is distinct from the great mass of the northern mountains, to which it may be considered a sort of an outwork. Through this ridge there are several openings, which afford a tolerably easy communication between Saharunpoor and the Doon; but the principal are the pass of Hurdwar, by the side of the Ganges; that of Timley, within a few miles of the Jumna; and the intermediate routes of Kheree and Kusserow. The ascent by these passes into the valley is for the most part so gradual as to be scarcely perceptible; yet the general elevation of the Doon itself has been found, by barometrical observation, to be from 900 to 1,000 feet above the level of the ocean. Its climate also differs much from that of Saharunpoor, for it is hardly at all affected by the hot winds, and during the winter season the mountains immediately bounding it to the north

are capped with snow, and instances have even occurred of a fall of snow within the limits of the valley.

Deyrah or Gurudwara (different names for the same place) is the only town, or rather considerable village, in the Doon. It is pleasantly situated in the centre of the valley, and surrounded by a fine tract of cultivated land. It has a neat bazar composed of large huts, and a Seik temple with its dependent edifices. The collector of Saharunpoor has a cutcherry in the neighbourhood, and here are the cantonments and head-quarters of the Sirmore battalion. The whole valley is admirably watered by numerous running streams, but, with the exception of the part immediately around Deyrah, in 1819, it presented to the eye nothing but a wilderness of high grass, interspersed with saul and sisso trees, and swarming with tigers, wild elephants, peacocks, and every species of game. The inhabitants do not differ materially in features, person, or language, from those of the neighbouring plains.

This valley having been a jaghire from Aurungzebe to Futteh Sah, the reigning raja of Gurwal, belonged properly to the throne of Delhi, but on the invasion of Gurwal in 1803, it was seized on by the Gorkhas, along with the rest of the province. In 1816 its estimated value was only 22,264 rupees per annum, but it was known to have produced a much larger revenue, and it is probable a few years of tranquillity will restore its prosperity, and augment its productive revenue to its former amount of 50,000 rupees. In considering the value of this Doon, however, it must not be examined with advertence to the mere amount of its revenue, but also with reference to its importance in a military and political point of view, as connecting the British territory east of the Ganges within the hills with the Kardeh Doon beyond the Jumna, and thus by means of the occupation of Malown and Subhatoo, and eventually of a fortress in Sirmore, furnishing a strong and uninterrupted line of defence from the Cali to the Sutuleje.—(*Fullarton, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

DHAMEE.—One of the Barra Thakooras, or twelve lordships in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Tonsi; lat. 31° 2′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E. In 1816 its revenue was only 4,000 rupees per annum, and it did not contain any fortress within its limits.

DHAMONEE (*Dhamani*).—A fortified town in the province of Malwa; lat. 24° 11′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E. The fort of Dhamonee is triangular, and situated on a small eminence, to the form of which in the eastern extremity the direction of the wall corresponds. On the other side is the town, encompassed by a loose wall, mostly in ruins, but the ramparts of the fort are in some places fifty feet high, and in general fifteen thick, with capacious towers. The fort is again subdivided by internal lines of works which render the eastern quarter, where the precipice is 200 feet high, difficult of access. Beyond the town is a tank, which when properly cut, will inundate a portion of the vicinity. This fortress was first acquired by the Nagpoor state in 1799 from a Lodhee Rajpoot, who had seized it from the Bondelahs.—(*Blacker, &c.*)

DHAR (*or Daranuggur*).—An ancient city in the province of Malwa, 1,908 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 22° 35′ N., lon. 75° 24′ E. The Dhar territories comprehend about 400 square miles, and when properly cultivated yields almost every tropical production, and amongst others opium. It contains 179 villages, twenty-five of which are situated in the wild and hilly tracts, and inhabited by Bheels. In 1820 the number of inhabited houses was 7,573, and the population about 37,865 souls, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to sixteen Hindoos. The city of Dhar appears at one period to have covered a great extent of ground, and is said to have contained 20,000 houses. In 1820 the number did not

amount to 5,000, but the population was then rapidly increasing. In length it may be three-fourths of a mile, by half a mile in breadth, and is only surrounded by a mud wall. The interior, however, contains some good buildings, and is watered by eight large and two small tanks. The fort is entirely detached from the city, standing on a rising ground about forty feet above the plain. The walls are about thirty feet high, and fortified with round and square towers.

In the early periods of Maharatta history, the Puars of Dhar appear to have been one of the most distinguished families; but they do not claim any descent, although of the same tribe, from the ancient Hindoo princes of Malwa. On account of their high birth, and being officers of the Satara Raja (not of the Peshwa) they always claimed precedence over Sindia and Holcar, which the latter were forward to acknowledge at the very moment they were robbing the Dhar rajas of their territories. In 1817, when the British troops entered Malwa, Dhar was the only possession that remained to Ramchunder Puar (a boy twelve years of age), and the whole revenues of the principality did not amount to 35,000 rupees, whereas in 1819 the gross revenues amounted to 2,67,004 rupees, and in 1824 were expected to reach 6,54,000 rupees. The historical notices of the ancient kings of Dhar are examined by Major Wilford and Mr Bentley in the eighth and ninth volumes of the Asiatic Researches. After the transfer of the government from Oojein it became the seat of government in Malwa, until the rise of the Mandoo sovereigns.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

DHARMA.—An extremely mountainous country in Northern Hindostan within the British limits, and situated between lat. 30° and 30° 30′ N., and traversed by the Daulee river, which afterwards falls into the Cali. It contains a few scattered villages and hamlets, but no towns.

DHARMAPOOR.—The northern division of the province of Cochar (properly Hairumbo) is thus named. The town of Dharmapoor is situated in an extensive valley upon the banks of the Capili river, to the north of the main range of mountains, and about sixty miles from Cospoor. It once contained a strong fort, and in size, trade, and population, almost equalled Cospoor; but owing to the disturbed condition for many years of these semi-barbarous regions, its commerce has decreased, and in consequence its wealth and importance. While trade flourished, the revenue derived from Dharmapoor equalled or exceeded the aggregate revenue of all the other districts of Hairumbo. —(*Friend to India, &c.*)

DHARWA,—A town in the province of Gundwana, sixty-two miles S.W. from Husseinabad; lat. 22° 17′ N., lon. 78° 42′ E.

DHAT.—In the middle of the space to the north of Parkur, in the south-eastern quarter of the province of Mooltan, commonly marked as a desert, is a tract of country named Dhat, which extends among the sand hills as far north as Amercote, comprehending two minor divisions named Khori and Khawra, stretching to the borders of Rajpootana. In this quarter of Hindostan, the sand-hills composing the barren portions are named thull, while habitable spots or oases are named dhat. The grain crops are scanty, but the pasturage abundant, enabling the inhabitants to rear large herds of oxen, which are purchased and exported by the Charons and such other sacred persons as are not afraid to venture into so wild a country.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

DHELLI.—A Portuguese settlement on the north coast of the island of Timor; lat. 8° 35′ S., lon. 125° 30′ E. This town is inhabited by natives, Chinese, and Portuguese, who carry on a traffic with Macao and the neighbouring isles.

DHENJEE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, which nominally belongs to Dwaraca; but owing to its situa-

tion amidst impenetrable jungle, the manick, or chief, has long acted as independent of that sacred fane. He was fined for piracy by Col. Walker in 1807, and his place taken from him in 1816 for the same crime, and subsequently transferred to the Guicowar.

DHODUR.—A small town in the province of Delhi, eight miles W.S.W. from Pattiallah; lat. 30° 15′ N., lon. 76° 6′ E.

DHOLKA.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, district of Kaira, twenty miles S. by W. from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 72° 32′ E. Three-fifths of this extensive and valuable pergunnah are calculated only for wheat and grain; of the remaining portion of the soil, one-half at least is appropriated to the cultivation of rice, and another to that of the usual light grains.—(*Capt. A. Robertson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

DHOLPOOR (*Dholapur*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated about one mile north of the Chumbul river, thirty-four miles S. by E. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 42′ N., lon. 77° 44′ E. The river in February is here about three-quarters of a mile across, and must be forded at Kyteree, four miles higher up. Dholpoor is a town of considerable size, and the hilly country begins in its vicinity, approaching from the north. The pergunnahs of Dholpoor, Barree, and Rajakera are rich and productive, and during the government of Ambajee are said to have yielded five lacks. In 1805, while under the collector of Agra, the land revenue of these domains was 3,95,000 rupees. This is an ancient city, and frequently mentioned by the emperor Baber, in his memoirs.—(*Metcalfe, Baber, &c.*)

DHOOA.—A town belonging to Sindia in the province of Agra, district of Narwar, surrounded by a wall of masonry.—(*MS., &c.*)

DHOOLCOTE.—A village of 200 houses, in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Aseerghur, five miles from the fortress of Aseerghur; lat. 21° 31′ N., lon. 76° 18′ E.—(*MS., &c.*)

DHOONE.—A town in the province of Candeish, twenty miles W. by N. from Chandore; lat. 20° 22′ N., lon. 74° 7′ E.

DHOR.—The capital of a petty state in Northern Hindostan within the dominions of Nepaul, the territory attached to which is said to contain iron mines; lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 83° 50′ E., seventy-three miles west of Catmandoo.

DHORAJEE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, fourteen miles N. from Junaghur; lat. 21° 41′ N., lon. 70° 48′ E.

DHUMDEREE.—A village in the province of Gundwana, district of Choteesghur, situated just below the point where the Mahanuddy river emerges into the plain of Choteesghur from the high country near its source, and elevated 1,720 feet above the level of the sea.

DHURRUMPOOR.—A territory in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the Dhurrumpoor raja, about forty-five miles long by thirty broad, almost entirely covered with thick forest, the extent of cultivation being comparatively insignificant. In 1821 the raja's revenue was about 1,40,000 rupees, besides which the British government had chokies throughout his country for the purpose of levying customs. Some of the inhabitants are Dooreas, but the greatest proportion are Kokumeas, a tribe resembling the Dooreas, but speaking the language of the Concan, from whence they originally migrated.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

DHURRUMPOOREE.—A decayed town in the province of Malwa, principality of Dhar, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda river; lat. 22° 10′ N., lon. 75° 20′ E. The pergunnah of Dhurrumpooree formerly comprehended eighty-four villages; but in 1820 only thirty-four, containing 1,223 houses, of which twenty-five were inhabited by Mahomedans, and

1,198 by Hindoos. The town seems to have experienced a still more rapid decay, for in 1820 it was reduced to eighty-four houses, whereas twenty years ago it is said (by the natives) to have contained 10,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Diamond Harbour.—A harbour in the river Hooghly, situated about thirty-four miles below Calcutta in a straight line, but much more by the windings of the river. This place and anchorage are singularly unhealthy, especially in the months of July, August, and September, during and after the periodical rains. This is partly owing to the proximity of low swampy shores, where a number of sluggish currents open into the stream of the Hooghly, floating down a quantity of vegetable and animal substances, which emit the most offensive vapours. To these natural evils are superadded many artificial ones, all contributing to the destruction of the seamen. The great precautions taken, from the best motives, to prevent their procuring wholesome spirits, drives them to the use of the most deleterious species of Bengal arrack, which no vigilance on the part of the officers could prevent. Their food consists of half ripe half rotten fruit, stale eggs, and overdriven beef; and their drink, on shore, the most execrable water, generally procured from a filthy puddle teeming with animal life. Add to this the society of loathsome prostitutes, excessive labour in the sun, the want of any manly recreation during their leisure hours, and the absence of the requisite medical assistance, and the combined effect will sufficiently account for the mortality of the ships' crews while lying at Diamond Harbour.

At this place the Company's ships usually unload their outward, and receive on board the greater part of their homeward cargoes, from whence they proceed to Sagor roads, where the remainder is shipped. The government ground here consists of about 800 begas, enclosed by an embankment raised to prevent inundation, and containing the government warehouses for ships' stores, rigging, &c.; the provisions and refreshments, such as they are, are purchased at high prices in the neighbouring villages. About twenty years ago an excellent brick road was constructed from Diamond Harbour to Calcutta, along the greater part of the distance elevated to a considerable height above the adjacent rice fields, which are in a high state of cultivation, and yield plentiful crops, although strongly impregnated with salt.—(*John Elliott, &c.*)

Diamond Island.—A small island on the east side of the bay of Bengal, about twelve miles south from Cape Negrais, lat 15° 51′ N., lon. 94° 12′ E. This island abounds with excellent turtle of the largest size, from forty to fifty of which may be turned in one night. The shore being studded with sharp rocks except in one or two places, considerable caution is required in landing from boats.—(*Johnson, &c.*)

Diamond Point.—A low woody point, forming the western extremity of the Straits of Malacca and eastern extremity of the Pedier coast, in Sumatra; lat. 5° 16′ N., lon. 97° 31′ E. By the Malays it is named Tanjong Jambu Ayer.

Diamonds.—See Pannah and Mahanuddy River.

Diamper (*Udyampura*).—A town in the Cochin territories, fourteen miles E. from Cochin; lat. 9° 56′ N., lon. 76° 29′ E. A celebrated synod was held here to convert the Nestorian Christians to the Roman church.

Dictaun.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirteen miles east of Dhar, which in 1820 contained about 1,000 houses, and belonged to Dowlet Row Sindia; lat. 22° 34′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E.

Diddee.—A considerable mountain hamlet in the province of Bejapoor, division of Ryebaugh, situated on the Gutpurba river, among the wilds that border the western ghauts. The Gutpurba, although here so near

its source, occasionally after heavy rain swells to a tremendous torrent, when the substitute resorted to for a ferry-boat is the sugar-pan of the village, a circular vessel of thin iron, about five feet wide by one deep, usually borrowed for the exigency.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Didwana.—A large village, built of stone, in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, situated on the verge of a beautiful elevated valley, which opens by a remarkable defile through the hills upon Lalsoont, about forty-one miles travelling distance from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 27° 18′ N., lon. 74° 21′ E.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Digah.—A village in the province and district of Bahar, about two miles from the cantonment of Dinapoor. Here is an extensive farm, conducted by a European, with the most complete establishment in India for curing provisions on a large scale.

Diggarcheh.—See Tishoo Loomboo.

Dihong River.—This is the name of the western arm of the Brahmaputra, flowing from the north, as the Luhit is of the eastern; but the sources of both are as yet undetermined. In 1826 an excursion northerly along the course of the Dihong was made by two British officers, but it did not solve the grand problem respecting the connexion of any of the Assam rivers with the Sanpoo of Tibet. The travellers ascended the Dihong to the village of Paskee, about lat. 28° 6′ N., lon. 95° 3′ E., which spot must be very close to the Sanpoo, if Duhalde's map be not much more erroneous than has hitherto been supposed.

In the portion of its course thus explored, the banks of the Dihong rise perpendicularly from the water's edge, surmounted by thick jungle, through which it was found impossible to cut a path. Having proceeded a few miles in a canoe beyond a point where the tract along-shore became impracticable, they were stopped by a dangerous rapid, difficult either to ascend or return by. On climbing up a rock, an unbroken sheet of water was observed running for some distance in a westerly direction, according to native information for about twenty miles, after which it again turns north. The path to the Bor Abor country goes directly to the north, and consequently leaves the river at this point. The width of the stream is here reduced to one hundred yards, and the current is slow; but as no considerable branch had joined the Dihong on the route, all the water poured by the Dihong into the Brahmaputra, in quantity double that of the latter, at their junction must be comprised within this channel. A tribe called Simongs dwell in the immediate vicinity of the point reached, and it is supposed that the country of the Lamas is next to theirs. The view from the village of Paskee is described as magnificent, comprehending the course of the Luhit or Brahmaputra from the hills as far as Seesee, its junction with the Dihong, the course of the Kounaul and other streams, and lofty ranges of mountains behind the Sadeeya peak, and the snowy ridge of mountains to the south-east, at least 150 miles off.

According to information furnished by the chief of the Mismees, the Dihong consists of two branches, one running from the east and rising in the country of the Khana Deba, about twenty-nine degrees north and ninety-seven east. It pursues a westerly course to about lon. 95° 20′ E., where it unites with the western branch from Lassa, forming the Dihong, here called Lassa Chombo, or Tzambo (Sanpoo), or the Lassa river, and Kongbong. The same authority says that it is not navigable through the hills, on account of the rapids.—(*Capt. Bedford, Lieuts. Wilcox and Burlton, &c.*)

Dillah.—A small town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles S.W. from Patiallah; lat. 76° 6′ E.

Dillanpoor.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Har-

rowtee, situated on the summit of a mass of hills, and surrounded by a stone wall. In 1820 it belonged to Zalim Singh, the regent of Kotah, and contained 1,500 inhabitants.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

DINAGEPOOR (*Dinajpoor*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated principally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Rungpoor and Purneah; on the south by Rajeshahy and Mymunsingh; to the east it has Rungpoor and Mymunsingh; and to the west Purneah and Boglepoor. Its greatest length, from the southern extremity to the northern, is 105 miles, and its greatest breadth eighty-two; having a triangular form, with the acute angle to the north. When surveyed by Dr. Francis Buchanan, in 1808, this district contained about 5,374 square miles, distributed nearly in the following proportions, viz.

Rivers, tanks, marshes, water-courses, &c. ...... square miles	353
Inundated during the rainy season	381
Red clay	38
Light-coloured clay	2,441
Free soil	2,161
Total square miles	5,374

During the Mogul government Dinagepoor, along with Edracpoor, constituted the territorial jurisdiction of Aurungabad, and was originally a frontier towards the independent principality of Cooch Bahar, on which account it was little known and lightly assessed.

Dinagepoor is every where intersected by rivers, which during the rainy season admit the passage of large boats to every quarter, and of small ones to most villages; the principal are the Mahananda, Jamuna, Korotoya, and Teesta. There are no lakes properly so called, although during the rainy season some of the rivers swell out to such an extent as to resemble very large ones. The deserted channels of considerable rivers also contain large quantities of stagnant water, always in the rainy season, and sometimes even during the parching heats of spring, and have the appearance of lakes; added to which there are many permanent marshes, and a multitude of unnecessary tanks, choked up with noxious plants and rank vegetation.

The rainy season usually begins about the 12th of June, is accompanied with much thunder, and ends nearly about the 14th of October. The rain most usually comes from the east; but towards the end of the wet monsoon there are frequently light southerly winds, which increase the heat, and the nights become very suffocating. In favourable seasons there ought to be one or two days of heavy rain between the middle of October and the middle of December, and if these fail the crop of rice is scanty. From the 12th of March to the 12th of May there are usually strong winds from the west, attended by thunder, rain, and frequently hail of an enormous size, resembling round lumps of ice. The westerly winds usually blow cool, pleasant, and dry, with a clear sky from the middle of February to the middle of March, which is undoubtedly the pleasantest time of the year. During November, December, January, and February, the cold is at times troublesome, and the Europeans have fires in their chambers, and wear woollen garments; but the natives, who are not so well provided, lament and shiver all night, and in the morning continue helpless and benumbed, both in body and mind, until reinvigorated by the rays of the sun.

The soil of this district is considerably diversified, and the face of the country of a waving appearance, being divided into small valleys, each two or three miles broad. These valleys are watered by small rivers, which in the wet monsoon swell into lakes fifty and sixty miles long, and two or three broad, overflowing all the low lands, which are dry during the cold season. The soil of the elevated portions of land is in gene-

ral a stiff clay, in some places black and porous, in others white and tenacious. The soil of some of the valleys resembles that of the elevated parts, and that of others is rich and loamy, with a substratum of clay. Although there is no elevation in the whole district that approaches to a mountain, yet the surface is not so level as in many other divisions of Bengal, two ridges attaining the height of 100 feet above the inundated country.

The soil of Dinagepoor, when dry, is in general of a very light ash colour, often almost white, but becomes dark when moist. In a few places near the Korotoya the soil is of a very stiff and red clay. Such soil, wherever found, is called ranggamati, and from this circumstance many places derive their names, for in Bengal a soil of this description is unusual. Large rivers usually affect the course of the winds, but in this district the streams are so small, compared with the Ganges and Brahmaputra, that this influence is much checked, and the winds are here extremely variable. On the whole, however, the east winds are by far the most prevalent.

The higher lands in the southern quarter are inhabited by Mahomedans, the lower by Hindoos, and on the first very little besides rice is produced, which is in a large proportion cleaned by boiling. A quantity is put into a pot with some cold water and boiled for an hour, after which it is dried and beaten; but it is not lawful for a Brahmin to use this kind of rice. The natives here are generally extremely indigent, and their farming implements are in consequence miserably simple. The plough is of a wretched description, and has neither coulter to cut the soil, nor a mould-board to turn it over. Only one person attends it, holding the handle in one hand, and occasionally pulling the tails of the oxen with the other. A pair of these sacred and unhappy creatures may be purchased for six or eight rupees, a plough for 1s. 3d. sterling, and a yoke for sevenpence. Rice is the staple article; the next in importance is indigo, for which, however, this district is not particularly well adapted. In 1808 the extent of land under the indigo weed was about 15,000 Calcutta begas, allowing 700 for each set of works, of which there were then twenty-one. Either too much or too little sun, and either too much or too little rain, will entirely ruin the crop. Sugar is also raised, but not in large quantities; and many sorts of fibrous plants for cordage are cultivated.

Hemp is cultivated on account of its buds, which are used for intoxicating purposes. The natives have two proper names for the hemp plant, calling it ganja when young, and siddhi when the flowers have fully expanded. It is a common weed in many parts of the district, and the wild siddhi answers for a particular manner of intoxication. The dried leaves are beaten in a mortar with water, and the infusion is drank. This is not so strong as the ganja, nor is the intoxication attended with such violent effects. The wild plant in its young state has little effect, and in order to procure ganja the plant must be cultivated with great care. In February, when the leaves are tender, and before the flowers open, the buds and young leaves must be pinched off and spread on the ground, where they lie ten or twelve days exposed to the sun and dew, until they are dry and fit for use. It is smoked like tobacco, and about twelve grains may be the usual dose.

The ficus indica, celebrated among ancient writers under the name of the banyan tree, became equally renowned among the modern English. Its great size, and picturesque appearance of its trunk, the fineness of its foliage, intermixed with many golden coloured berries, and above all its singular manner of sending down roots from its branches, all combine to interest the spectator. This tree, from its beauty (for it is of very little use) has always been greatly esteemed by

the natives of Bengal, and is considered by them the female of the peepul tree. These two trees are supposed to represent a Brahmin and his wife, and it is reckoned a sin to cut or destroy either, but especially the male; and it is thought very meritorious to plant a young male tree close to a female, with certain matrimonial ceremonies. In this union the natives have discovered more taste than usual: the elegant lightness and bright foliage of the peepul are well adapted to contrast with the rigid grandeur of the banyan tree, but the appropriation of the sexes ought to have been reversed.

The branches and leaves of these two trees being a favourite food of elephants, the keepers, who are of low castes, make sad havoc among these emblematic Brahmins. It is usual to place a piece of silver money under the banyan tree when it is planted, without which it is supposed neither to grow to a large size nor to send down fine roots. It contains a milky juice, which coagulates into a kind of elastic gum, and makes excellent bird-lime; the descending roots are often used for ropes. Notwithstanding some good qualities of the peepul and banyan trees, the prejudice in their favour is attended with some bad effects; their fruit being a favourite food with monkeys and birds, seeds are constantly deposited in buildings and on other more useful trees, and wherever they find a crevice they take root. They send long filaments to the ground, and no sooner procure nourishment from [illegible], than they crush and over-[illegible] their original supporter, and [illegible] lay waste old buildings and plantations.

The ficus religiosa is the peepul tree of the botanists. Although it has not the majestic size and numerous stems of the banyan tree, it possesses great elegance. The various roots which it sends down from a tree or building on which it first germinated, often compose a trunk of a most picturesque form, while the fine shape of its leaves, and their tremulous motion, give it a peculiar elegance. It is sacred to Vrihaspati (Jupiter), the planet of Thursday.

Nearly allied to the figs are the bread-fruit trees, of which the jack is the finest in India. This tree has a beautiful foliage, and exhales a delightful odour in February, produces a very useful fruit, is excellent food for elephants, and yields a useful and ornamental timber, which, however, is unfortunately given to warp with heat; the wood is also use as a dye. The fruit has a nauseous smell, and its flavour is not agreeable to the generality of Europeans; but the natives are fond of the pulpy envelope by which the seeds are surrounded. The green fruit is very much used in curries, and the ripe seeds are preserved for the same purpose. In some parts of India they form the common food of the people for two or three months of the year, as chestnuts do in the south of Europe, and when roasted have a great resemblance to that fruit. The cusa grass, or *poa cynosuroides*, is a sacred plant among the Hindoos, and is dedicated to the invisible planet Ketu, which occasions the eclipses of the sun.

The bamboo is the most useful and common woody plant; houses, furniture, boats, and implements of agriculture, being entirely, or in part, made of this valuable reed, which is also the common fuel, and from it the Dinagepoor mats, so celebrated all over Bengal for the superiority of the fuel, are fabricated. The plant grows from a creeping root, which extends from twelve to twenty feet in diameter, and sends forth forty or fifty stems; these form a clump which keeps separate from the others that are adjacent. Every year from five to ten bamboos of a clump are ripe and are cut, while young ones shoot up from the root to supply their places. If the whole be cut at once the plant is liable to death; the stem also perishes when it produces fruit, which very rarely happens in cultivated parts of the country, on which account many of the natives believe

that the plant never produces either flower or fruit. This plant produces ripe bamboos in seven years, but it requires to be exempted from the inundation, and flourishes best in a free soil.

The areca of botanists thrives in this district as an ornamental tree, for it seldom, if ever, brings its fruit to maturity; yet in the same latitude, further to the east, the tree thrives well, so that its barrenness is probably owing to some defect of management. The cocoa-nut palm is nearly in the same state, nor could it without difficulty be made to ripen its fruit. The guavas raised are very bad: but this probably is a foreign introduction to Hindostan, as the fruit has not any name in the Sanscrit language. The tamarind is a valuable and elegant tree; besides producing an acid fruit used by the natives in seasoning their food, the timber is excellent, being hard and strong. In this district many houses have been built with long branches of the jigal tree, that have been fixed in the ground for posts, and afterwards having taken root, pushed forth branches, which has had a very picturesque effect.

The breed of oxen here is extremely degenerate, and not only many Mahomedans, but even many low tribes of Hindoos, use the cow in the plough, which, according to the strict usages of Brahminical nations, ought to be punished with death. Notwithstanding the prevailing numbers of the followers of the Arabian prophet in this district, tame swine are more numerous than sheep, and are eaten by the lower classes of Hindoos. The breed of horses, or rather ponies, is of the most wretched description: but their cost is moderate, being only from 4s. 6d. to 11s. 6d. each. Slaves are very few, and were mostly purchased during the great famine of 1769, and the scarcity of 1787; but they turned out so idle and careless that their employment was found much more expensive than that of hired labourers. The elephant and rhinoceros are almost unknown, and tigers are comparatively not numerous; but large flocks of wild buffaloes and hogs infest the fields, and prove extremely destructive to the farmer. In this district a white animal of the tiger kind was killed some years ago, the skin of which being sent to Europe by Lord Wellesley, occasioned a dispute whether it was that of a *lion* or a *tiger*. No such animal had been seen before, nor has it been seen since. The Indian ichneumon is common, but is very seldom tamed. Otters are so plenteous that their fur might become an object of commerce. Bears are not numerous or destructive, and are chiefly found near the ruins of Peruya. Where the soil is loose the common porcupine is abundant and destructive, as it prevents the cultivation of turmeric and pepper. It is eaten with eagerness by all ranks.

Although the country swarms with water-fowl, both web-footed and waders, the natives make little use of them. The common wild-goose is exceedingly abundant, and in the cold season remarkably good eating. The water-fowl preferred by the natives are three birds of the corvorant or shag kind, which they call panikauri; several small herons comprehended by the natives under the general name of vok; several birds of the jacana and gallinule kind, included under the native term jolpayi; but, above all, the common house-sparrow, which last being thought to possess aphrodisiac qualities, is in request at all times.

Several kinds of tortoise are eagerly sought after; but, to a European taste, they are execrable. Frogs are not eaten by any of the natives, but some lizards are. Fish form by far the greater part of the animal food that is consumed in the country. During four months of the year, when the rivers are swollen, fish is scarce, as they have then an extensive range of element, and are not easily caught; but as the inundation subsides, and the animals are confined within narrow bounds, they are secured by

various simple means, indeed many are left sticking in the mud, and taken without trouble, a circumstance never disagreeable to a native.

Six weeks after the rainy season commences, every rice field, although quite dry and hard in the spring, abounds with small fishes. They are certainly most numerous near rivers and marshes, from which they generally come; but it is also probable that the eggs often continue dry in the field, and are hatched after they have been moistened by rain. The natives account for their appearance in such places by supposing that they fall from heaven along with the rain, and assert that immediately after the rain they can see them leaping among the grass; indeed, when so disposed, a native can see any thing he wishes or expects.

The picking and cleaning of cotton is performed by the women, and the preparation of cotton-thread occupies the leisure hours of the females of the higher ranks (even the Brahminies), and of the greater number of the farmers' wives; but the raw material is mostly imported. Although some native houses in this district trade to a considerable extent, the East-India Company must still be considered as the chief merchant, and much eagerness is evinced by the natives to deal with its agents. In 1808 the following towns were the principal, *viz.* Dinagepoor, containing about 5,000 houses; Malda, 3,000; Gour, 3,000; and Raygunge, 1,000 houses. At the above date the total population of the district was estimated by Dr Francis Buchanan at 3,000,000 of persons, or about 558 to the square mile. Contrary to what is seen in most parts of Hindostan, the Mahomedans are here the prevailing sect, being as seven to three Hindoos, which sect appear at one time to have been almost entirely extirpated, most of those now existing being the progeny of new-comers.

In 1808 the following was nearly the respective proportions, according to the opinion of the above-mentioned authority:

Mahomedans	2,100,000
Hindoos	900,000
Total...	3,000,000

Of the Hindoo population 440,000 are of Bengalese origin, *viz.*

Pure tribes	70,000
Impure tribes............	370,000
	440,000
Very low castes (below impure)	150,000
Abominable	210,000
	360,000

Up to the above date Christianity had made very little progress in Dinagepoor, nor were there any native Portuguese.

In most parts of this district the leases granted to tenants are equivalent to a perpetuity; but this does not appear practically either to have bettered the condition of the peasant, as compared with other districts, or to have improved the cultivation of the soil; and, what is remarkable, notwithstanding their right of perpetuity, they are constantly migrating from one estate to another. The greater part of the landlords are new men, who have recently purchased their estates, and who were formerly either merchants, manufacturers, agents of landholders, or native officers of government. The old zemindars are either sunk in miserable superstition, the prey of religious mendicants, or are totally abandoned to sottish and stupifying dissipation. The evils resulting from the endless subdivision of estates are also severely felt here. In 1814 the jumma or land assessment to the revenue was 17,66,373 rupees; and the abkarry, or excise on spirituous liquors, 10,117 rupees.

Ever since the cession of this district along with the rest of the province in 1765, it had been greatly infested by decoits, or gang-robbers, partly owing to the numerous rivers by which it is intersected, and partly

to the dastardly spirit for which the inhabitants have long been noted. In 1814, however, a considerable improvement took place, in consequence of the pains taken by Mr. Sisson to ensure the co-operation of the landholders, and to impress the inhabitants with a sense of their ability to resist the atrocious acts of these depredators. In the first half-year the whole of the offenders in five cases of gang-robbery were brought to justice; and it appeared that in several instances the robbers had been resisted, and even seized in the fact by the villagers, on which occasions they were liberally and publicly rewarded. Two instances of gang-robbery, attended with murder and torture, occurred in 1814, but these were mostly perpetrated by large gangs of Keechuks, Nepaulese, and inhabitants of Bootan.

Some reform in other respects, however, appeared wanting, as, according to Mr. Sisson, the main road from Dinagepoor to Moorshedabad, which at one time was thickly set with villages, had been quite deserted by the inhabitants, through fear of the sepoys passing to and from that city. In 1814 a night watch was also established in the different villages of the district, planned and introduced by Mr. Sisson, composed of villagers, who took it by turns, which expedient operated with considerable effect in reducing the number of gang-robberies and burglaries. But notwithstanding these advantageous circumstances, it was found experimentally to be a great hardship on the labouring classes, especially in small villages, where the turn of watching occurred too often; besides which, subsequent to the seizure of any criminal, they were called on for evidence, and compelled to quit their homes and occupations without recompense; which annoyances occurred exactly in proportion to their activity and vigilance as watchmen.—(*F. Buchanan, Carey, Sisson, Oswald, &c.*)

Dinagepoor.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district; lat. 25° 37′ N., lon. 88° 43′ E., 102 miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad. This town consists of four portions, viz. Dinagepoor proper, Rajgunge, Kangchou Ghaut, and Paharpoor. The houses, or rather dwellings, for many contain ten huts, were estimated in 1808 at about 5,000; and the total population of all descriptions at 30,000 persons. The raja's house was of great size, but has gone to ruin since the decay of the family. It was built in A.D. 1780, and its remains exhibit a strange mixture of European, Moorish, and Hindoo styles, all in the worst taste; nor is much better displayed in the architecture of the houses erected by the European portion of the community.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Dinapoor.—A town in the province of Bahar, situated on the south side of the Ganges, ten miles west of Patna; lat. 25° 37′ N., lon. 85° 5′ E. The military buildings here are handsome edifices, arranged in spacious squares; but they are only one story high, and in point of magnificence inferior to those at Berhampoor. Many of the officers and others have built neat and commodious habitations in the vicinity, and the grounds round them are well laid out, with good roads through the cantonments, so that the appearance of Dinapoor is greatly superior to that of Patna. In 1811 the different bazars scattered within the cantonments were said to contain 3,236 houses. In this vicinity potatoes are cultivated to a great extent, and are consumed both by Europeans and natives; by the latter, not as a substitute for grain, but as a seasoning.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Dinara.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on a small lake, fifteen miles west of Jansi; lat. 25° 28′ N., lon. 78° 28′ E.

Dindigul (*Dandigala*).—The district of Dindigul (including that of Madura) is situated in the Carnatic

province, and about the tenth degree of north latitude, where it occupies about one degree of latitude and 1¼ of longitude. To the north it is bounded by Coimbatoor and Trichinopoly; on the south by Travancore and Tinnevelly; to the east it has the Bay of Bengal; and to the west Travancore and Coimbatoor. The particular portion of this district named Dindigul is mountainous and woody, the general surface of the country being about 400 feet above the level of the sea. The Dindigul valley, seventy-five miles long by about twenty broad, is formed by the great mass of the Pilny mountains on the north, by the Travancore mountains on the west, and on the east by a lower range of hills that extend from Dindigul to the bottom of the valley near Sheragurry, where they unite with the western ghauts. A projection from this range commonly known by the name of the Aligherry hills, stretches eastward to within fourteen miles of the garrison of Madura, and are the nearest high lands to that fortress. Along their northern base they are watered by the Vyar river, which after passing close to Madura, and traversing the zemindaries of Shevagunga and Ramnad, is absorbed into a large tank, near Altongherry, twenty miles south of Tondi. After passing Madura, the river is so diverted from its channel for the purposes of irrigation, that its bed at Ramnad is usually dry throughout the year, and only contains water when the floods happen to be unusually great. There are other streams that traverse Madura, and afterwards fall into the gulf of Manaar.

In common seasons the climate of Dindigul is reckoned one of the finest in India. It seldom rains in March and April. May is the hottest month of the year; but the thermometer does not rise so high as in Coimbatoor and Madura; yet in December and January it seldom falls below 64°. In June, July, and August, the superiority of the Dindigul climate over that of the adjacent districts is very perceptible, owing chiefly to the number of hills scattered over the surface, which arrest the clouds, and cause the discharge of much rain; the temperature of the air is consequently rendered cool and pleasant during these months; but for the remainder of the year the climate does not differ essentially from that of Coimbatoor. Notwithstanding its comparative superiority of climate, this district, in 1809, 10, and 11, was visited by a destructive epidemic fever, which so thinned the population, that in many parts the rice rotted on the ground for want of hands to reap it. From the first of April 1810 to the 31st of March 1811, there died in the Dindigul division 21,510 persons, out of an estimated population of 295,654 persons.

The principal towns within the limits of Dindigul Proper, are Dindigul, Vedasundoor, Pilny, and Perryacottah; but the villages are meanly built, the roofs low and miserably thatched. The lands lying furthest from the hills are invariably higher and drier than those lying near their base, where many large marshy, weedy tanks are to be found. The general plane of the country is considerably lower than that of Coimbatoor, although higher than those of Madura and Tinnevelly. The labourers here are chiefly Pullars, and are not comfortably situated. Their houses, except in a few of the largest towns, are small, ill-built, carelessly thatched, and but little raised from the ground, more especially in the villages near the hills, which present an appearance of misery and squalid poverty. Truckle beds are seldom used, except by such individuals as are above the rank of labourers, but coarse cumlies or blankets are in general use. The dry cultivation is to the wet rather more than four to one.

In the villages of Dindigul the same internal policy is found to prevail as in the other provinces of the south of India. Certain inhabitants, under particular titles, are in the enjoyment of a portion of land rent-free,

and are hereditary occupiers of the remainder. Certain principal officers, the curnum (or accountant and register of the affairs of the village), iron-smith, carpenter, barber, washerman, village watchman, pot-maker, dancing girl, the distributor of water, &c. are sometimes found in a village, sometimes only a part of them. They have the government produce of a portion of land assigned to them for their support, but no claim to cultivate the land; and from the occupation in life of many of the incumbents, it may be presumed they have seldom the wish. The country of Dindigul was ceded by Tippoo in 1792; and now, together with Madura, the Manapara pollams, Ramnad, and Shevagunga, forms one of the collectorates under the Madras presidency. In 1822, according to the returns made by the collectors to the Madras government, the united districts of Dindigul and Madura contained 601,293 persons. The city of Madura is the head-quarters of the civil establishment.—See also MADURA.—(*Medical Reports, Hodgson, 5th Report, Hurdis, &c.*)

DINDIGUL.—The capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 10°18′ N., lon. 78° 2′ E., 160 miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin, and about 400 feet above the level of the sea. This place is situated near the western extremity of an extensive plain, about thirty miles from east to west, and twenty-five wide from north to south, and almost surrounded by mountains. The pettah is a clean and neatly-built native town, particularly the principal bazar, which is lined on both sides with trees. A small population of native Christians (a branch of the Malabar Roman Catholics) reside here, and inhabit a particular quarter of the town, where their houses are distinguished by a little cross at the top; and the total number of this persuasion within the province is said to be about 8,000 persons. They have a small place of worship south of the town, where in 1820 the officiating priest was a native of Malabar, subordinate to the Bishop of Cannanore.

The fortified rock of Dindigul is a bluff bulging-out mass of granite, about 400 feet high, the upper half in some parts over-topping the lower, so as to render it quite inaccessible on the south and west. The fortifications enclose an area of about 100 feet at the base of the acclivity, but cover only the eastern and northern faces of the rock. The garrison (a detachment of invalids) have barracks in the lower fort, the works of which are allowed to decay, while those above are kept in the highest order. The principal line of defence is within about 100 feet of the summit, and consists of a range of solid ramparts faced with masonry, and flanked by quadrangular bastions. There are many tanks excavated in the hill above, and the apex is crowned by a Hindoo temple, the ascent to which is by steps cut in the rock. Under the northern ledge of this hill there is a remarkable natural cavern, inhabited by Mahomedan fakeers. A dark narrow passage penetrates from hence towards the interior of the rock, and a local tradition is related of forty-three fakeers who quitted the world by this passage, and never returned.

Dindigul was conquered by the Mysore Raja in A.D. 1755, and taken from Tippoo by a British army in 1783, but restored at the peace of 1784. It was finally ceded to the British government along with the district in 1792, and before the epidemic of 1811, was supposed to contain 7,000 inhabitants. Travelling distance from Seringapatam 198 miles; from Madras 275 miles.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

DINGDING ISLES.—A number of small islands lying off the Perak river and territory in the straits of Malacca, and for many years a favourite resort of pirates; lat. 4° 20′ N., lon. 100° 32′ E. In 1819, they were offered to the Penang government, by the captain of a country ship, who said they had been given to him by the deceased

Raja of Perak. Pulo Dinding is a beautiful granitic island 250 feet high, and covered with thick woods from the margin of the sea to the summit. —(*Public MS. Documents, Finlayson, &c.*)

DIFNAGHUR.—A town of considerable population (not laid down in any map) in the province of Bahar, district of Bahar, thirty-six miles S.E. of Patna, and two south from the city of Bahar.

DITTEAH (*Dattiya*).—The capital of a small principality in the province of Allahabad, forty-three miles S.S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 43′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E. This town, when visited by Dr. Hunter in 1790, was a mile and a half long and nearly as much in breadth, the houses being mostly of stone and covered with tiles, surrounded by a stone wall furnished with gates. The raja had then a palace without the town, situated on an eminence, which commanded an extensive view as far as Pechoor, Narwar, and Jhansi. Close to this hill is an extensive lake.

During the reign of Aurengzebe, Ditteah was the capital of Dhoolput Roy, a Bondelah chief of some celebrity. On the cession of Bundelcund to the British, in 1804, Raja Parakhyrt of Ditteah joined the British standard, and was taken under its protection. The modern territories of Ditteah border on those of the Bhow of Jhansi and the Tehree Raja. At the conclusion of the Pindarry war of 1818, the Vinchoor Cur's lands, known by the name of Chourassy, lying on the east side of the Sinde, and forfeited by the Cur's adherence to Bajerow, were given to the Ditteah Raja, on whose territories the British army, commanded by Lord Hastings in person, had for a considerable time encamped. The annual value was about 92,000 rupees per annum.—(*Hunter, Richardson, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

DIU (*Dwipa, the island*). — A small island and harbour near the southern extremity of the Gujerat peninsula; lat. 20° 41′ N., lon. 71° 7′ E. This insulated spot, about four miles long by one broad, in ancient times contained a Hindoo temple, celebrated for its sanctity and riches. In A.D. 1515 the Portuguese obtained possession of Diu, and in 1536, by permission of Buhadar Shah, the reigning sultan of Gujerat fortified it. While the Portuguese prospered, it enjoyed considerable commerce, but it fell with their decay, and in 1670 was surprised and plundered by the Muscat Arabs, then a considerable maritime power. It has since dwindled away, and is now an insignificant place, containing not more than 4,000 inhabitants; but it may at some future era again become of importance on account of its harbour and geographical situation. Even now it receives a small tribute annually from Poorbunder, for the protection it is supposed to afford to the trading ships of that port, but which it neither does or can afford. The remains of convents and monasteries are still to be seen, and cannon are mounted on the walls, but without soldiers to look after them. In 1809, during a particular emergency, it was garrisoned by a detachment of his Majesty's 47th regiment. — (*Stewart, Bruce, Duncan, &c.*)

DOAB (*Two Waters*).— Recently this name has been applied indiscriminately to the whole tract of country between the Ganges and Jumna, from Allahabad to the hills of northern Hindostan; but formerly by Mahomedan historians it was usually restricted to the southern portion, for the most part comprehended in the Agra province, and during the Mogul predominance subdivided into the districts of Furruckabad, Kanoje, Etaweh, Korah, Currah, and Allahabad. There are several Doabs in Hindostan, the name designating any tract of country included between two rivers.

The general aspect of the Doab is that of extreme nakedness. Clusters of trees are occasionally seen near the larger villages, but ten miles may frequently be passed over without the appearance of one: firewood is in

consequence both scarce and expensive, nor is there any tree pasture for elephants to be met with in the whole tract from Allahabad to Saharunpoor. In fact, the only wood found here in any abundance is the low shrubby palass, which has overspread a considerable extent of the interior, and supplies Caunpoor and the other European stations with fuel of a very indifferent quality. The millet raised, although a small-eared grain, furnishes a great quantity of straw ten feet long, which is of great use as provender for cattle. Besides millet, sugar-cane and barley are cultivated, and in the neighbourhood of Kanoje considerable quantities of tobacco, the only plant introduced by Europeans that is in general request all over Hindostan. The staple article, however, of the northern part of the Doab is cotton, and a coarse cotton cloth, dyed red with cheap materials, is largely manufactured in the central tracts, as is also another species named gezis and gezinas. The soil of this region is so naturally adapted for the production of indigo, that the plant is here found in a wild state, of a superior quality to that raised by cultivation. The system on which the manufacture of indigo is conducted in the Doab is in some respects peculiar; instead of the whole process from the commencement being carried on at the factory, the colouring matter is extracted by the cultivator himself, and delivered in a liquid state at the factories, where it is afterwards inspissated and formed into cakes. The crops of the indigo weed here, although precarious, are less so than in Bengal, but the dye thus manufactured is universally of inferior quality to that produced in the lower provinces.

The climate of this portion of India is subject to extraordinary fluctuations of temperature within the limits of the same twenty-four hours, there being frequently a difference of forty degrees, and seldom less than thirty degrees, throughout the cold season, between the extreme points of the morning and afternoon. At this season the thermometer has been known to fall at day-break below the freezing point, yet is seldom under sixty-eight degrees during the afterpart of the day. The hot winds blow here with great severity in April and May, and have been known to raise the thermometer even to 120 degrees and upwards. This intolerable heat, as might be expected, frequently proves fatal to animal life: but the European residents in the Doab who have the means of cooling their rooms with wetted khuskhus mats, and whose avocations do not call them into the open air, enjoy generally as good health while the hot season lasts as in any other.

While this tract of country remained subject to the Nabobs of Oude, salt was made in almost every village from Allahabad to Hurdwar, by professed manufacturers, who disposed of it in small quantities to the same class. Salt of a similar quality was also made on the opposite bank of the Jumna, the total quantity then manufactured in the ceded provinces being estimated at 40,000 maunds, principally used by the lower classes and given to cattle. Much base salt was also imported from Sambher, Nho, and Combhere. By the treaty of peace concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia on the 30th December 1803, he ceded to the British all his forts, territories, and rights in the Doab between the Ganges and Jumna, the southern division having been previously acquired from the Nabob of Oude in 1801. It did not, in fact, constitute any part of the original possessions of his family, having been added, along with Rohilcund, to the Oude dominions by victories obtained by the British armies. The crime of dacoity, or gang robbery, most frequently occurs in this region during the first six months of the year, when the Ganges and Jumna are fordable; during the last six months it becomes less frequent. Indeed, considering the almost total anarchy that prevailed in this quarter before it came under the British domination, and that the Jauts, Goojurs, Raj-

poots, Aheers, Lodhas, Patans, Mewaties, Meenas, Buddicks, Thugs, Cozauks, Chummas, and Khankrobes (who still *form* the bulk of the population), had been from time immemorial addicted to open and secret plunder, it is not surprising that criminal offences are not wholly eradicated. — (*Fullarton, Tennant, Sir Henry Wellesley, Swinton, Guthrie, &c.*)

DOAB CANAL.—See ZABETA KHAN'S CANAL.

DOABEH BARRY.—(*Bari, a residence*).—A doab in the province of Lahore, which comprehends the country between the Ravey and Beyah rivers. It is also named Manjha, and the Seiks who inhabit it, the Manjha Singhs. It contains the cities of Lahore and Amritsir, and becomes in consequence the centre of the power of the Seik nation. In 1806, Runjeet Singh of Lahore, Futteh Singh of Allowal, and Joodh Singh of Ramgadia, were the principal chiefs of the country, but the first since that period has usurped the possessions of all other competitors within its limits. Approaching the mountains this tract is said to be less fertile than the Doabeh Jallinder; it must, however, from its geographical position, have nearly the same climate and soil.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

DOABEH JALLINDER (*Jalindra*).—A doab in the province of Lahore which comprehends the country between the Sutuleje and Beyah rivers, and the mountainous district of Cahlore. This natural subdivision of the Lahore province, although of small dimensions, is from the peculiarity of its geographical position of considerable importance, as it is by this route that the imperial province of Delhi is to be most conveniently penetrated, the extent of fertile country being here circumscribed by the hills on the east, and the desert on the west. It is also the most fruitful portion of the Seik territory, and is not excelled in climate and strength of vegetation by any province of India. The soil is light, but very productive: and the country, which is open and level, abounds with every kind of grain. The absence of water, which is so severely felt in the more westerly regions, is here unknown, as it is every where plenty within two or three feet of the surface. The principal towns are Jallinder, Rahoon, and Bhatty.

This territory is principally occupied by the Malawa Singh Seiks, who are called the Doabeh Singhs, or Singhs who dwell between two waters. With their chiefs we are but little acquainted. In 1803, Tarah Singh was one of the most considerable; but he seems to have disappeared so early as 1812, when Boodh Singh of Jallinder, Futteh Singh of Allowal, and Jodh Singh of Ramgadia, were the principal leaders. In that year Runjeet Singh of Lahore, taking advantage of their discord, attacked the possessions of the first, and captured his two principal fortresses, Jallinder and Bhutty. It is worthy of remark as illustrating the political condition of the Seik community, that the instruments employed in the subjugation of this territory were the two chiefs last named, whose forces composed the largest body of cavalry in Runjeet's army; yet a defensive alliance was believed to exist between these three chiefs, to resist conjointly the aggressions of Runjeet Singh. Under these circumstances, two of them followed his standard to effect the destruction of the third, swayed by the delusion of protracting for a short period their own downfall. On the other hand, the pride of Boodh Singh, the chief first-mentioned, induced him to abandon without a struggle a tract of country yielding three lacks of rupees per annum, rather than submit to a personal attendance on Runjeet Singh. — (*Ochterlony, Malcolm, &c.*)

DOABEH RECHTNA.—A doab in the province of Lahore, which comprehends the country between the Chinaub and Ravey rivers, and in every geographical feature resembles the preceding Doabe, but respecting the interior of which scarcely any

thing is known. The extent of Doabeh Rechtna (a name given by Abul Fazel) is considerable, and it contains some towns of note, such as Bissooly, Vizierabad, and Eminabad.

Dohla.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, on the frontier of the Rana of Odeypoor's dominions towards the city of Ajmeer. In 1824 there was a castle here, but much dilapidated, the thakoor then being in disgrace and exile at Kotah. Many of the tradesmen and merchants of this neighbourhood are natives of Bicanere in the desert, who generally return home after they have made a little money, to end their days in that place, although situated in one of the most inhospitable regions of the earth, surrounded by an ocean of sand, and all the drinkable water monopolized and sold by the government.

Doitgur.—A town in the Carnatic province, twenty miles S.W. from Arcot; lat. 12° 42′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E.

Dodairee.—A town and small district in the Mysore territories, twenty-two miles E. by N. from Chitteldroog; lat. 16° 14′ N., lon. 76° 48′ E.

Dobisah.—A town, or rather village, in the province of Bahar, Zemindary of Chuta Nagpoor, 213 miles W.N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 11′ N., lon. 85° 16′ E.

Dogaree.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Boondee, twenty-three miles travelling distance north-east from the town of Boondee. This place stands close to the margin of a beautiful lake surrounded by low hills, covered with wood and adorned with pagodas and other buildings. A perpetual stream from the lake passes through the streets, whose waters are afterwards employed to irrigate the adjacent fields. There is a temple here dedicated to Parswanath, the Jain deified saint; and there are many of that sect among the inhabitants.—(*Fullarton*, &c.)

Dogorah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-two miles S.S.E. from Jhansi; lat. 25° N., lon. 78° 58′ E.

Dohud (*Do-hud, two frontiers*).—This place stands on the common boundary of Malwa and Gujerat, at the north-east entrance of the Barreah jungle, which extends above forty miles nearly to Godra, yet the road through it leading into Gujerat is the best and most frequented; lat. 22° 55′ N., lon. 74° 20′ E. Dohud is of considerable extent, the houses well built, and the bazar abundantly supplied with grain and water. It is in consequence much frequented by the traders of the interior, being a thoroughfare for the inland traffic between the provinces of Upper Hindostan and Malwa, with Baroda, Broach, Surat, and other large commercial towns of Gujerat. It is also of considerable importance on account of its position, which commands the principal pass into Gujerat from the north-east. The present fort of Dohud was a caravanserai at the eastern extremity of the town, said to have been built by Aurengzebe. It is 450 feet square, and has two strong gates, one on the north and another to the south, and the interior contains a mosque, two wells, and other handsome structures, all of excellent workmanship and durable materials.—(*Malcolm*, &c.)

Dollerah.—A trading town in the province of Gujerat, pergunnah of Dundooka, ten miles west from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 22° 18′ N, lon. 72° 21′ E. In 1820, owing to the river Bhadur having burst its banks, and overflowed the adjacent country, so much mud and sand was accumulated at this place, as to threaten its total destruction as a maritime town.—(*Public M.S. Documents*, &c.)

Domel Isle.—One of the Mergui archipelago, named also Lamboo and Sullivan's Island; lat. 11° 3′ N. It is about twenty miles long by twelve broad, and in 1825 was uninhabited. It has a bold shore, but does not rise to a greater elevation than 500 feet.

The soil is probably good, as the hills are covered with brushwood and large trees.—(*Lieut. Low, &c.*)

DOMUS.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fifteen miles S.W. from the city of Surat; lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 72° 53′ E.

DONGREE.—A small fort built on a rock near Chatsoo, in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, twenty-three miles travelling distance S. by E. from the city of Jeypoor.

DONOBEW.—A town and stockade in the kingdom of Ava, province of Pegu, about sixty miles by the course of the river above Rangoon; lat. 17° 8′ N., lon. 95° 55′ E. In 1825 the stockade of Donobew extended for nearly a mile along the sloping bank of the river, its breadth varying, according to the nature of the ground, from 500 to 800 yards; the whole space fortified in the strongest manner, and exemplifying the perfection to which the Burmese had attained in the art of temporary defensive fortifications. The army within, under the Bundoola, amounted to about 15,000 men of his best troops. After having repulsed General Cotton's detachment with a heavy loss, it was shortly after evacuated by the garrison, owing to the death of their commander, who had been killed by a stray bomb. The embassy in 1827 found this place considerably enlarged and strengthened—(*Snodgrass, &c.*)

DONDRA HEAD.—The southernmost extremity of the island of Ceylon, near to which are still to be seen the ruins of what apparently has once been a magnificent Hindoo temple; lat. 5° 56′ N., lon. 80° 35′ E.

DONNAI RIVER.—A river of Cochin-China, the source of which still remains unknown. It flows past the city of Saigon, unto which place it is navigable for ships of burthen; but small craft can ascend much higher. It falls into the sea at Cape St. James, lat. 10° 16′ N., lon. 107° 45′ E., where the rise of the tide is nine feet at full and change. It is said to have been recently connected with the Cambodia river by a canal. The delta of this river in many respects resembles that of the Ganges in Bengal, being intersected by a labyrinth of channels, with low and jungly banks, swarming with tigers. Another point of resemblance is the mangoe fish, which abounds near Saigon, and of an excellent quality.—(*Lieut White, &c.*)

DOOBEE.—A small fortified town in the province of Ajmeer, which in 1824 had some small ordnance on the bastions, and well calculated to defy the attacks of a native army; lat. 26° 52′ N, lon. 76° 20′ E.; forty-four miles east of Jeypoor.

DOODPUTLEE.—A small town in the province of Cachar, about forty miles east of Silhet, where in 1824 a sharp action took place with the Burmese, in which a British detachment was repulsed with the loss of 150 sepoys killed and wounded, besides four officers; lat. 25° 3′ N., lon. 92° 42′ E.

DOOLEA.—A considerable town belonging to the British government in the province of Candeish, and formerly the residence of the political agent and the head-quarters of a small military detachment, thirty-five miles west of Arundool; lat. 21° 1′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. The river Paunjra runs close to the north of the town over a rocky bed, with a fine broad stream, for part of the year, but in the cold season it becomes dry. When it is able it joins the Tuptee. From hence there are roads leading east to Boorhanpoor, north to Sindwah ghaut, south to Lallung, and west to Surat.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

DOOLOO BUSSUNDAR (*Dala Bassandra*).—A Hindoo place of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, where there are three coonds or springs. According to native accounts a flame appears on the surface of the water above the small holes, from whence the water issues.

DOOLOORIA.—A considerable town

belonging to the British government in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Bugwanea, situated on the Athere river, thirteen miles S.S.W. from Husseinabad; lat. 22° 33′ N., lon. 77° 40′ E.

DOOMAH.—A town in the province of Gundwana, 120 miles N.E. by N. from Nagpoor; lat. 22° 46′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

DOOMKOT.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, twelve miles south from Serinagur; lat. 30° 4′ N., lon. 78° 45′ E.

DOON *(a valley)*.— See DAYRAH DOON.

DOONAGREE.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, sixteen miles N.N.W from Almora; lat. 29° 46′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E.; 7,534 feet above the level of the sea.

DOONGURPOOR *(Dongurpur)*.—The capital of a small principality in the province of Gujerat, situated in the hilly tract formerly named Bagur, ninety-five miles N.E. of Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 54′ N., lon. 73° 50′ E. We have no topographical information respecting this district, excepting that the mounds enclosing the Doongurpoor lake are built of solid blocks of marble. Both this state and Banswara have been so long disunited from Odeypoor that they are virtually separate sovereignties, although still kept attached by family descent and alliance. The Doongurpoor princes claim to be a senior branch of the reigning sovereigns of Odeypoor; and this right is tacitly admitted by the highest seat being always kept vacant when the raja of the latter country dines. No race of men are more punctilious, in giving and demanding those distinctions that relate to birth, than the Rajpoots; nor are the rights of the individual at all affected either by his being in a reduced condition, or being merely the adopted child of the family whose inheritance he claims. Dynasties never could have been perpetuated except by a latitude in the law of adoption, which renders the total extinction of a family almost impossible.

The Doongurpoor rajas have among their military adherents a few Thakoors and some Rajpoots of their own tribe; but the majority of their subjects are Bheels, who are probably the aborigines of the country. When Malwa and the neighbouring provinces fell into their late state of anarchy, the Doongurpoor chief, in order to preserve his country, entertained bands of Arabs and Sindies: who soon usurped all power, and laid waste the country they were hired to protect. From these merciless ravagers the principality was rescued by the British government, under whose protection (for which a small tribute is paid) it is fast recovering from the state of desolation to which it had been reduced. In 1824 the Doongurpoor gross revenues amounted to 2,43,580 rupees.—(*Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

DOONDEAKERA *(Dundyacara)*.—A town in the king of Oude's territories, forty-eight miles south by west from Lucknow; lat. 26° 12′ N., lon. 80° 36′ E.

DOOR.—A village in the Balaghaut ceded territories, district of Cuddapah, twenty-nine miles N.W. from the town of Cuddapah; lat. 14° 48′ N., 78° 43′ E.

DOORAHA.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the road from Bhopaul to Shujawulpoor, and about seventeen miles from the former; lat. 23° 24′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E. It formerly belonged to the Vinchoor Cur, but after the Pindarry war of 1818 was given to the Nabob of Bhopaul. In 1820 it contained about 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

DOOREE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-two miles S.S.E. from Jhansi; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 81° 41′ E.

DOORNAUL.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, fifty-six miles north from Cuddapah; lat. 16° 1′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

Dooryghaut (*Durighat*).—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles south by east from Goracpoor; lat. 26° 16′ N., lon. 83° 37′ E.

Dophlas (*or Dufflas*).—The great bund, or causeway, which formerly extended from Cooch Bahar to the eastern extremity of Assam, at the village of Lakhomati Bhoteya runs through a thick forest and separates the district of Noa Dewar, in Assam, from the Dophla country, the land on the north of the bund belonging to the Dophlas, and to the south to Assam proper.

These Dophlas are a powerful tribe, inhabiting the second range of hills. They carry on an active traffic with Assam, bringing down rock-salt, and coarse red woollens, and taking back in return fish, buffaloe flesh, and coarse silk. Their nearest village is about eight miles north of the bund, which here seems to serve the stead of a boundary line. In 1814 the Boora Gohaing, or regent of Assam, in his correspondence with the Bengal presidency, attributed the desolation of a considerable portion of his territories to the predatory incursions of the Dophlas.—(*Public MS. Documents, Public Journals, &c.*)

Dory Harbour.—A harbour on the northern coast of Papua; lat. 0° 48′ S., lon. 134° 35′ E. The promontory of Dory, the sea-coast of which extends about fourteen leagues, is of moderate height, the ground every where ascending gradually. The trees are lofty, with little underwood. The neighbouring country abounds with fresh-water rivulets, and there is good grass. The climate is temperate, being so near the high mountains of Arfak, where the clouds settle. There are neither goats or fowls at this harbour, but wild hogs, fish, greens, and fruit, are to be had. The Papuas who reside at Dory are supplied with plantains and calavansa beans by the horaforas of the interior, who take in return iron and other goods. Wood is plentiful here, and the wild nutmeg grows in the vicinity.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Doudpoor.—A town in the province of Gundwana, forty-two miles east by south from Bustar; lat. 19° 22′ N., lon. 83° 7′ E.

Dowletabad (*or Deoghir*).—A town and strong fortress in the province of Aurungabad, seven miles N.W. from the city of that name; lat. 19° 57′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E. This fortress is formed of an insulated mass of granite, about 3,000 yards from the range of hills to the north and westward, and presents to the eye a shape not unlike a compressed bee-hive, except that the lower part, for nearly one-third up, is scarped like a wall, and presents all round a perpendicular cliff. It has never been accurately measured, but appears to be about 500 feet to the summit, which is almost a point. The scarp of the rock down to the counterscarp may be about 150 feet, and the scarp below the glacis from thirty to forty feet, which added to 150 will give above 180 feet for nearly the whole height of the scarped cliff. An outer wall of no strength surrounds the pettah, above which towers the hill that forms the citadel; but up to the ditch three other lines of walls and gates are passed. The causeway across the ditch does not admit of more than two persons at once, and a building with a battlement defends it on the opposite side.

After passing the ditch the ascent is through an excavation in the heart of the rock, and at first so low that a person is obliged to stoop nearly double; but after a few paces it opens into a high vault, lighted by torches, out of which the ascent is by a winding passage gradually sloping cut through the interior of the body of the hill. This passage is about twelve feet high, and the same in breadth, with a regular rise. At certain distances from this gallery are trap doors, with flights of small steps to the ditch below, only wide enough to admit a man to pass, also cut through

the solid rock to the water's edge, and not exposed to the fire of assailants unless they gain the very crest of the glacis. There are likewise other passages and recesses for depositing stores. After ascending the main passage for about ten minutes, it opens out into a hollow of the rock about twenty feet square. On one side, leaning against the cliff, a large iron plate is seen, nearly the same size as the bottom of the hollow, with an immense iron poker. This plate is intended to be laid over the outlet and a fire placed on it, should the besiegers make themselves masters of the subterranean passage, and there is a hole three feet in diameter, intended to convey a strong current of air to the fire. On the road to the summit, which is very steep, and in some places covered with brushwood, there are some houses, towers, and gates. In the lower fort there is a remarkable minar or column, apparently about 160 feet high, and of great diameter, but deformed by a huge gallery which encompasses it at about a fourth of its elevation from the ground. The enclosure of the pettah, or town, contains numerous remains of buildings composed of a rough dark-coloured stone, but the inhabited portion is now very inconsiderable. The interior of the lower fort presents also a similar scene of ruins. The governor's house is an excellent one, and surrounded by a veranda with twelve arches, and through this house passes the only road to the top. Towards the summit the road becomes narrow, and on the peak, where the Nizam's flag flies, stands a large brass 24-pounder; but besides this, in the whole fortress there are said to be only a few two and three-pounders. As the rock contains reservoirs of water, if properly defended it could only be won by famine.

When the Mahomedans, under Allah ud Deen, carried their arms into this quarter of the Deccan, about A.D. 1293, Deoghir or Tagara was the residence of a powerful Hindoo raja, who was defeated, and his capital taken and plundered of immense riches. In 1306 the fortress and surrounding district were reduced to permanent subjection by Mallick Naib, the Emperor of Delhi's general. In the early part of the fourteenth century the emperor Mahomed made an attempt to transfer the seat of government to Deoghir, the name of which he changed to Dowletabad. To effect this absurd project he almost ruined Delhi, with the view of driving the inhabitants to his new capital, 750 miles distant; but his endeavours were unavailing, so that he was obliged to desist after doing much mischief. About 1595 Dowletabad surrendered to Ahmed Nizam Shah of Ahmednuggur, and on the fall of that dynasty was taken possession of by Mallik Amber, an Abyssinian slave, who was reckoned the ablest general, politician, and financier of his age. His successors reigned until about 1634, when the city and fortress were taken by the Moguls, during the reign of Shah Jehan, when the seat of government was transferred to the neighbouring town of Gurka or Kerkhi, and since named Aurungabad. Along with the rest of the Mogul Deccan, it fell into the possession of Nizam ul Mulk, and has continued with his descendants, the Nizams of Hyderabad, ever since, with the exception of the year 1758, during which it was held by M. Bussy; but he was obliged to abandon it when ordered to withdraw his army to the Carnatic by M. Lally, his superior in command.—(*Fitzclarence*, *Fullarton*, *Ferishta*, *Scott*, *Orme*, *&c.*)

Dowletabad.—A large district, mostly comprehended in the Nizam's dominions, in the province of Aurungabad, and situated about the twentieth degree of north latitude. Although forming part of the elevated table-land of the Deccan, this territory for the most part is of an uneven surface, and intersected by hilly ridges of considerable extent. There is little cultivation except in the neighbourhood of villages and

towns, the principal of which are Aurungabad, Dowletabad, Elora, and Phoolmurry; the chief streams are the Godavery and the Sewna.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Draupta.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, forty miles N.N.W. from Junaghur; lat. 21° 57′ N., lon. 70° 17′ E.

Draus.—A town in Little Tibet, situated near the junction of two branches of the Indus. In old maps it is placed in lat. 35° 30′ N., lon. 76° E.; 100 miles N.E. from the city of Cashmere. By the natives it is asserted, that two great streams contributary to the Indus, join at or near to the town of Draus, eight days' journey for a caravan north-east of Cashmere. The main stream of the Indus at this point is said to come from the north-east.—(*Elphinstone, Macartney, &c.*)

Dravida (*or Dravira*).—This is the ancient name of the country which terminates the south of India. Its northern limit lies between the twelfth and thirteenth degrees of north latitude, and it is bounded on the east by the sea, and on the west by the eastern ghauts. The name, however, is occasionally extended to all the country occupied by inhabitants speaking the Tamul language; and there is a whole class of Brahmins designated by the name of Dravida Brahmins. The subordinate divisions of Dravida were named from the three rival dynasties of Cholan, Cheran, and Pandian; the first governing in Tanjore and Combooconum, possessed the northern tract; Pandian had Madura and the south; and Cheran united Kanjam and Salem to the dominions of the Kerala, on the coast of Malabar.—(*Wilks, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Draumtoor.—A small valley in the province of Lahore, situated between the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude, and extending from the Doar rivulet, which runs S.W. and falls into the Indus at Torbaila. The mountains are lofty, and produce oaks, pines, walnuts, wild olives, and other hill trees, but no European flowers or fruits are found here. The country is tolerably inhabited, and contains some populous villages.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Dubboi.—A large town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1780, although then in a rapid state of decay, was supposed still to contain 40,000 inhabitants, among whom were only 300 families of Mahomedans; lat. 22° 9′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E., thirty-eight miles N.E. from Broach. The remains of fortifications, gates, and temples, indicate a former state of great magnificence; and the profusion of hewn stone, and the remains of sculpture scattered about are astonishing. The ancient walls and towers were entirely built of large square stones, the expense of bringing which from the distant mountains must have been enormous, as not the smallest pebble is to be found in this part of Gujerat. The gate of diamonds presents a very favourable specimen of Hindoo architecture, extending in length 320 feet, with a proportionate height. Rows of elephants richly caparisoned support the massy fabric, and the whole is covered with sculptured groups of various descriptions. Within the walls is a large tank constructed of masonry, having a grand flight of steps to the water. The whole is now in a state of dilapidation. Such is Mr. Forbes's description of Dubboi as it existed forty-seven years ago, and it does not since appear to have attracted the slightest notice. Some of the principal houses are well built, but the rest are native huts, the whole overshadowed by mangoe and tamarind trees, where dwell nearly as many monkies as there are human creatures below. The natives consider them half men, and say that on account of their laziness, tails were given them and also hair to cover their bodies.—(*Forbes, &c.*)

Dublana.—A large village built of schistus stone, in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Boondee ele-

ven miles north from the city of Boondee; lat. 25° 38′ N., lon. 75° 30′ E.

Dechenpara (*Dakshinpara, the southern portion*).—A district in the north-east corner of Cashmere, on the mountains of which Abul Fazel, in 1582, says the snow never decreases, so that from the cold, the narrowness of the roads, and the great height of the mountains, they cannot be passed without extreme difficulty.

Dug.—A considerable town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 2,000 houses; lat. 24° N., lon. 76° 1′ E., fifty-two miles N. from Oojein. It is the head of a pergunnah which belonged to Zalim Singh, the old regent of Kotah. In 1796 it yielded a revenue of 1,00,000 rupees per annum, which in 1820, on account of the long prevailing anarchy, had declined to 2,500 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Dukka Jeung.—A town in the province of Bootan, eighteen miles S. by W. from Tassisudon; lat. 27° 46′ N., lon. 89° 32′ E.

Dukkinshahabazpoor.—A large island in the province of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the great river Megna, from the sediment of which it has been formed. In length it may be estimated at thirty miles, by thirteen the average breadth. It is very low land, and at spring tides during the rains is almost submerged. In the channels between Dukkinshahabazpoor and the neighbouring islands, the bore, caused by the sudden influx of the tide, prevails with great violence, and renders the navigation extremely dangerous. Salt of an excellent quality is manufactured here on government account, by an establishment subordinate to the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Dumdum.—A military village and extensive cantonment in the province of Bengal, six miles W.N.W. from Calcutta, where a battalion of European artillery is usually stationed, being the head-quarters of the Bengal artillery. It consists principally of several long low ranges of buildings, all on the ground floor, ornamented with verandas, the lodgings of the troops, and some small convenient houses occupied by the officers, adjoining a large plain, like the esplanade of Calcutta, and appropriated to the artillery practice. There is a church and free-school here.

Dummoodah River (*Damodara, a name of Vishnu*).—This river has its source in the hilly part of the Ramghur district, and province of Bahar; it afterwards flows through the Pachete zemindary, and joins the Hooghly a few miles below Fulta. Including the windings, its course may be estimated at 300 miles, and it is important, as greatly assisting the inland navigation of the adjacent districts.

Dumpo.—A town in Tibet, built on a steep eminence, forming part of a ridge stretching from a mountain's side, and sloping down to the river, above which it rises about 300 feet; lat. 31° 6′ N., lon. 80° 15′ E. On the banks of the Sutuleje between Kienlung and Dumpo are many larva of the kind of locust that breeds in the stony plains of Tartary, marked on the body with a yellow ring on a black ground, and having a large horn in the tail. Two other species of locusts also breed in this vicinity: one with purple wings, which by clapping the horny cases together make a cracking noise as it flies; the other is twice as large, the body and wings of a yellow colour, spotted with dots a little darker.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

Dundah.—A large village in the province of Mooltan, principality of Sinde, situated on the south-west bank of the Goonee river; lat. 24° 58′ N., lon. 68° 58′ E. This place stands on the route from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, to Mandavie on the gulf of Cutch, by the river Goonee, which is here one fathom and a half deep, and about seventy yards broad during the rains. Twelve miles further south it contracts to the breadth of twenty yards, with two fathoms

depth; but in 1819 all the rivers in this quarter were deranged by the Cutch earthquake.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Dundooka.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fifty miles S.W. from Cambay; lat. 22° 25′ N., lon. 72° 8′ E. The territory contiguous to Dundooka was greatly injured in 1813 by the total absence of rain, followed by the presence of locusts, and in 1818 a severe frost destroyed the cotton and almost all the other crops in this pergunnah.

Dumbeerguna.—A very wretched village in the province of Aurungabad, situated on the high land near the verge of the fine range of ghauts about ten miles N. by E. from the city of Ahmednuggur. This place stands near a romantic dell or ravine to which the appellation of the "Happy Valley" has lately been applied. It has been carefully laid out as a garden in the native style, and luxuriantly planted with cocoa-nut and other trees, and a handsome pavilion of stone stretches from bank to bank across a space of about sixty feet. Below this is a reservoir of water supplied by a perennial spring, which keeps it in continual agitation, and likewise gives motion when required to an artificial fountain on the north side of the pavilion. The descent to this singular spot is by a stair cut in the scarped face of the rock. It is inhabited by some Brahmins and Hindoo ascetics, who officiate at a small temple dedicated to Mahadeva or Siva.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Dungy.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, sixty-eight miles S.W. from Patna; lat. 25° 10′ N., lon. 81° 16′ E.

Dunker.—A town in Tibet Tartary, situated on the banks of the Spiti river, fifteen miles N.W. from Lari, in Lahdack; lat. 32° 9′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

Dupaud.—A small subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated at the north-eastern extremity towards Guntoor. It is traversed by the Gondigam river, but contains no town of note except Dupaud, which stands in lat. 15° 58′ N., lon. 77° 23′ E., sixty-one miles N.W. from Ongole. Within this tract copper ore of the best quality has been discovered.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Durrangdra.—A town in the province of Gujerat, forty miles east of Mallia; lat. 22° 54′ N., lon. 71° 31′ E. The Durrangdra raja is the chief of all the Jhala Rajpoots, and enjoys the privilege of being seated on a cot, while the other chieftains are placed on a carpet. In 1807 the annual tribute to be paid to the Guicowar was paid at 74,000 rupees.—(*Walker, &c.*)

Duralee.—A village in Northern Hindostan, said to be the highest in the bed of the Ganges, and approaching its source; lat. 31° 8′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E., sixty-eight miles north from Serinagur.—(*Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

Durar.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Rutlam, eight miles S.E. by S. from the town of Rutlam.

Durbungah (*Dwarabhanga*).—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, fifty-six miles N.E. from Patna; lat. 26° 9′ N., lon. 85° 56′ E.

Duroo.—A small town in the province of Cashmere, thirty-five miles S.E. from the city of Cashmere; lat. 34° 7′ N., lon. 75° 16′ E.

Durrumgaum (*Dharmagrama*).—A town in the province of Candeish, seventy-seven miles north from Aurungabad; lat. 20° 58′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E.

Duryawud.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated at the confluence of the Karmaulee and Sookta rivers; lat. 24° 5′ N., lon. 74° 32′ E.

Dusapkeira.—A small walled town in the province of Aurungabad, built with considerable regularity, and situated about four miles S. by W. from the celebrated caves of Ellora.

Dussara.—A town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1809 was estimated to contain 1,300 houses, in-

habited by Cubaties, Coolies, Rajpoots, and other castes, and a few Banyans; lat. 23° 10' N., lon. 71° 51' E. One of the ancestors of the Dussara Mullicks, who are Mohamedans, about A.D. 1269 was put to death by the raja of Hulwud for having committed gowhattia (cow-killing), and is now held in great veneration by the adjacent followers of the Arabian prophet. His tomb is on the banks of a large tank in the neighbourhood.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

DOTI.—A petty state in Northern Hindostan, which formerly extended from the Goggra on the east, to the Cali or Black river, that separates it from Kumaon on the west, and through its centre passes the Setigunga, or white river. Along the banks of the last-mentioned river is a fine valley, four miles long by two broad, on which stands Depal (or Duti) the capital, encompassed on three sides by the river; lat. 29° 6' N., lon. 80° 31' E., eighty-five miles N.E. from Bareilly. It is said to contain about 400 houses, built of stone and roofed with the same material. The principal crop is winter rice, the second urid, the third kurthi, and the fourth barley; all the others being of small account. The oil-seed chiefly raised is the sesamum. According to native accounts, of the whole population one-fourth are pure Brahmins, another fourth bastard Brahmins; Khasiyas compose three-sixteenths, and low labourers and tradesmen the remaining five-sixteenths.—(*F. Buchanan, Webb, &c.*)

DUTTAH.—A town in the province of *Lahore*, sixty miles east from Amritsir; lat. 31° 39' N., lon. 75° 49' E.

DUTTODA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Indore, which in 1820 contained 400 houses.

DWARACA (*Dwarica, the gate*).—A town and celebrated temple (named also Juggeth) situated at the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula; lat. 22° 15' N., lon. 69° 7' E. In [illegible] this place was possessed by Mooloo Manick, then considered the most powerful of the Okamundel chiefs. The sanctity of the fane attracts a rich population, and presents an asylum from danger. At the above date twenty-one villages belonged to Dwaraca, with a population of about 10,240 persons. In 1807 Mooloo Manick agreed by treaty to abstain from piracy, and was taken under the protection of the British government, the benefit of which was experienced in 1819, prior to which it had been seized by a party of Arabs, Sindies, and other plunderers. It was in consequence escaladed by a detachment under Colonel Lincoln Stanhope, and the whole garrison, amounting to 550, and consisting of a class who never give or expect quarter, destroyed.

The most original and sacred spot in this quarter of India, according to Brahminical legends, is Dwaraca; but about six centuries ago the valued image of their god Runchor (an incarnation of Krishna), by a manœuvre of the priests was conveyed to Daccoor in Gujerat, where it still remains. After much trouble the Brahmins at Dwaraca substituted another, which unfortunately also took a flight across a narrow arm of the sea to the island of Bate or Shunkodwar, about 150 years ago, on which event another new one was installed here. Dwaraca is also designated as "the island," and having long been the residence of Krishna, the favourite deity of the modern Hindoos, is a celebrated plan of pilgrimage for the sectaries of that religion, in performing which the following ceremonies are observed.

On the arrival of the pilgrim at Dwaraca he bathes in a sacred stream, named from its windings the Goomty, for which ablution he pays the Dwaraca chiefs four rupees and a quarter, but Brahmins only three and a-half. After this purification a visit is paid to the temple, where offerings are presented according to the circumstances of the devotee, and a certain number of Brahmins are fed. The pilgrim next proceeds to Aramra,

where he receives the stamp from the hand of Brahmin, and impressed by an iron instrument, on which are engraved the ring and the lotos flower, which are the insignia of the god. The instrument is made hot and applied to any part of the body, but generally to the arms, and not being overheated, leaves a durable impression; it is even applied to infants, and a pilgrim can receive not only his own mark, but also act as proxy in receiving other stamps on his body for the benefit of a friend. This stamp costs one rupee and a-half. Having accomplished thus much, he next embarks for the isle of Bate, where, on his arrival, he must pay a tax of five rupees to the chief, present liberal offerings to the god, and dress him in rich clothes and ornaments. The chief of Bate, who is a holy person, receives charge of the present, which he retails again to other pilgrims on reasonable terms, and it performs in time a similar revolution. The annual number of pilgrims resorting to Dwaraca has been estimated to exceed 15,000 persons, and the revenue derived at about one lack of rupees.

Notwithstanding this existing place of pilgrimage, the most authentic Hindoo annals assert that Dwaraca was swallowed up by the sea a few days after the decease of Krishna. This incarnation of the preserving power spent much of his life at Dwaraca, both before and after his expulsion by Jarasandha from Mathura, on the banks of the Jumna, in the province of Delhi: which would indicate a greater intercourse between these distant places than could have been expected at so remote a period. The chalk with which the Brahmins mark their foreheads comes from Dwaraca, where it is said to have been deposited by Krishna, and from thence by merchants carried all over India. Thirty miles south of Poorbunder is the supposed spot where the original Dwaraca stood, until swallowed up by a sort of cataclysme or bursting forth of the ocean. There it is that a bird annually rises from the foam of the waves, and by its colour and other circumstances enables the Brahmins to predict the nature of the coming monsoon. The belief of this apparition, which is mentioned by Abul Fazel in 1582, is still prevalent, and according to the Hindoos, this bird of omen continues annually to peck grain, dance before the deity, and die, as it did two thousand years ago.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

DYHUL.—A town in the province of Candeish, seventy miles E. by S. from Surat; lat. 21° 3′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E. This was formerly the capital of the Puar (or Powar) family, one of the original branches of the Maharatta confederacy; but in process of time their possessions were wrested from them by more powerful competitors, and in 1803 the whole were encompassed by the dominions of Dowlet Row Sindia.—(*Duke of Wellington, &c.*)

E.

EASTERN ISLANDS.

The archipelago comprehended under this title is by far the largest assemblage of islands on the globe. Its commencement may be fixed at the western extremity of Sumatra, stretching to the 138th degree of east longitude, and its breadth from 11° south to 19° north. The whole is situated within the tropics, the equinoctical running through the centre of a large proportion of the islands, which, with the exception of the Philippines are nearly all situated within ten degrees of the equator on each side. The whole are distributed into groups and chains of isles, with here and there a great island intervening.

This archipelago (for which there is no general or comprehensive Hindoo name) contains three islands of the first rank and size, viz. Borneo, Papua, and Sumatra; of the second rank, Java; of the third, Celebes, Luzon, and Magindanao; and of the fourth rank, Bally, Lombhook, Sum-

bhawa, Chandana, Flores, Timore, Ceram, Booro, Gilolo, Palawan, Negros, Samar, Mindoro, Panay, Leyte, and Zebu. The western boundary of these is formed by the Malay peninsula and Sumatra; the southern by a long chain of contiguous islands, beginning with Sumatra and ending with Papua; the eastern is principally formed by Papua, Gilolo, Magindanao, and Luzon; the northern and north-western by the great islands of Luzon, Palawan, and Borneo.

In that division of the Eastern Islands extending from 124° to 130° east longitude, the character of the monsoons is reversed. The eastern monsoon, which in the western quarter is dry and moderate, is here rainy and boisterous; the westerly monsoon, which is rough and wet beyond the above limits, is within them dry and temperate. This is the native country of the clove and nutmeg, while rice is scarcely produced at all, the general food being sago. This archipelago is the only portion of Asia situated under the equinoctial, and like other tropical countries enjoys heat, moisture, and a luxuriant vegetation. It is, throughout, of a mountainous nature, and the principal chains volcanic.

As in other tropical countries, the only essentially useful divisions of the seasons is into wet and dry, for the sun having sufficient strength to quicken vegetable life, moisture to nourish it is all that is wanted; the wet half of the year is consequently the season for germination, the dry for fructification. The inhabitants of the eastern portion derive their mealy nutriment, which other nations procure from the cereal gramina, from the pith of the sago tree, which affords an edible farina, the bread of these islanders. The sago palm is a native of low marshy situations, a good sago plantation or forest being a bog knee-deep. Before the tree has attained its full growth, and prior to the formation of the fruit, the stem consists of a thin hard wall, about two inches thick, enclosing an enormous volume of a spungy medullar substance, like that of the alder. As the fruit forms, the farinaceous medulla disappears, and when the tree attains its full maturity, the stem is only a hollow shell. It seldom exceeds thirty feet in height, but is thick is proportion, as a full-grown tree can with difficulty be clasped. Its utmost age rarely exceeds thirty years.

There is no regular period for extracting the pith, but fifteen years may be considered an average time for its reaching maturity. Five, and even six cwt. of nutritious matter have been procured from one tree, but the average of each may be reckoned at 300 pounds, and it has been calculated that an English acre is capable of yielding 8,000 pounds of raw sago-meal per annum, taking a series of years. The pith, when ground down in a mortar, deposits the farina at once, which after one or two edulcorations through a sieve, affords the raw sago-meal fit for being converted into cakes or panado. The true native country of this palm appears to be that portion of the archipelago in which the easterly monsoon is the boisterous and rainy season, comprehending under that description the eastern portion of Celebes and Borneo, Magindanao, Timor, Papua, and the adjacent isles, but more especially that of Ceram.

Sago is such insipid food that it requires a seasoning; accordingly blachang, a mass composed of small fish, chiefly prawns, beaten up with salt and spices, and then allowed to ferment, putrify, &c. in the sun, is always an accompaniment. This fetid preparation, at first so nauseous to a stranger, is afterwards much relished and is the universal sauce of the Eastern islanders and Indo-Chinese nations, no food being deemed palatable without it.

Notwithstanding the apparent similarity of climate, there is a prodigious variety of the different islands, which may be referred to respectively. The most considerable traffickers are the Malay and Buggess nations, principally the Wadjo Buggesses, who in fact are the universal carriers of the

archipelago. In A.D. 1824 the total number of Wadjo prows, of from twenty to sixty tons, trading from the following places were 786; the average value of the cargos 4,000 dollars; rich ones, carrying bird's-nests and tortoiseshell, to 30,000 dollars. These Buggesses, however, are only carriers and general merchants, and have very little share in the collection or preparation of the articles that compose their cargoes. The principal piratical ports still existing, in 1820, were Rhio, Lingin, Billeton, Sambas, Borneo Proper, Tampasuk (subject to Borneo Proper), Passir, Sooloo, and Magindanao.

	Prows.
Sumbhawa	40
East coast of Borneo	66
West coast of do.	20
Wadjo country	50
Mandhar in Celebes	200
Kaiti do.	100
Macassar ... do.	100
Boniratte Isle	50
Pari Pari, in Celebes	10
Bally and Lombhook	50
Java	50
Floris	50
Total	786

On shore, the women of the Indian islands, and more especially of Java, are almost the sole merchants and brokers, the men interfering very little, particularly with the retail business. The higher departments of mercantile adventure are conducted by foreigners, mostly native Chinese, Europeans, or their descendants, and natives of Hindostan and Arabia. Of the Asiatic dealers the Chinese are decidedly the most useful, and they appear to occupy the same employment that the Jews did among the barbarians of the middle ages of Europe, except that here they have more fair play. A commercial intercourse has always subsisted with the Eastern maritime nations of Asia; but the most extensive, intimate, and probably the most beneficial, has always been ,with China. In fact, a demand for the peculiar productions of the Eastern archipelago appears interwoven with the habits, manners, and religious ceremonies of that singular nation, whose industry we constantly find directed either to objects of mere necessity, or for the gratification of their sensual appetites, it never, in any shape, assuming the character of intellectual enterprise.

Gold is universally diffused throughout the archipelago, but is most abundant in the islands that form the northern and western barriers, and present a geological primitive formation, while it is rarely worth seeking for in the great volcanic range extending from Java to Timor Laut. Borneo affords the largest quantity; then in succession, Sumatra, the Malay peninsula, Celebes, and Luzon. In 1818 the total produce of the archipelago was estimated at 154,865 ounces, or £658,176 sterling. Although gold in its native state is so generally diffused, no coins of that metal have yet been found, nor do the Indian islanders in remote times appear to have possessed a metallic coinage. Rude images of silver have been discovered in Java, and also some small coins—both probably imported, for native silver is one of the rarest of metals, and although it is frequently found in combination with gold, the quantity is so small, that as an article of commerce it may be said not to exist. Iron is also a very limited production; in Java there is none whatever.

Copper ores are found in Sumatra and Timor, and have lately been found at Sambas in Borneo. The most general name for it throughout the archipelago is the Sanscrit word Tambaya, and nearly all the old Hindoo relics and images, are made of copper alloyed with iron. Except Brazil and Hindostan, the Indian islands are the only portions of the globe in which the diamond is found, and even here it seems confined to the south and west coast of Borneo.

The principal countries of the archipelago in which cloth is manufactured for exportation are Java, Bali, and Celebes, of which the last are

the best, being substantially fabricated from the fine cottons of Lombbook, Bootoo, and Mangerai. Indigo, until recently from Java, has never formed an important export from the Eastern Isles. Black pepper is produced in large quantities and of an excellent quality, and from hence a large proportion of all the pepper consumed in the world is exported; but, although so much esteemed abroad, it is but little thought of at home, for (as happens with nutmegs and cloves) the native islanders scarcely ever use black pepper for culinary operations, and the consumption for other purposes is very trifling. The rattan is a spontaneous production of all the forests, but is found of the best quality in Borneo, Sumatra, and the Malay peninsula; the principal export is to China, where great quantities are employed as cordage. No attempts have yet been made to cultivate the mulberry, or propagate the silk-worm. After passing Sumbhawa, the horse may be traced to Floris, Sandal-wood Island, and Timor; but no where further east, being unknown in the Moluccas and Papuan isles.

The great tribes of these islands which have influenced the destinies of the inferior ones, have all had their origin in the larger islands, where civilization appears to have progressed from the west. By the Malays they are usually termed lands, as Tanna Ambun, the land of the Amboynese; Tanna Suluk, the land of the Sooloo; Tanna Papua, the land of the Papuas. They exhibit two distinct races of inhabitants: an aboriginal fair, or brown complexioned people, with lank hair; and also an aboriginal negro race, black or rather sooty-coloured, with woolly frizzled hair. These two in other respects resemble the white and the negro races of the western world, the first having always displayed the same superiority over the last, as the whites do over the negroes of Africa.

The black tribes may be traced from one extremity of the archipelago to the other, but is necessarily less numerous where the civilized abound, and seem to have utterly disappeared in the more westerly islands. On the contrary, towards the east they increase in the inverse ratio of improvement until we reach New Guinea, where they compose the great mass of the inhabitants. The medium height of the brown man is five feet two inches for the males, and four feet eleven inches for the females. Their eyes are small and always black; indeed any other colour would be reckoned a monstrosity. The hair on every part of the Indian islander, except the head, is scanty, and the beard naturally very defective. The fairest races are generally to the west, but some of them, as the Battas, are under the equator. The standard of beauty here is almost the same as in Europe, and the individual of either sex pointed out as handsome in the one country would equally be esteemed so in the other, except with respect to complexion, the standard of which is a virgin gold colour.

The practice of smoking tobacco has been discontinued by the East-Indian islanders, instead of which they shred it small, and suck it through the teeth. On the other hand, the whole of them smoke instead of swallowing opium, as the Turks, Hindostanies, and other Asiatics do. But although universally addicted to the use of intoxicating drugs, they have no partiality for vinous or spirituous liquors, which is probably the effect of climate. All classes are also distractedly fond of gaming, and the Malays and Buggesses more than the rest. Games of hazard are the most prevalent, those of sedentary skill not being sufficiently stimulating. But, of all others, betting on pugnacious animals, such as the game-cock, quail, and even cricket, is their favourite amusement. The latter are stimulated by the application of a blade of grass to their noses. Buffaloes and tigers are also compelled to fight within a narrow space, but the latter are almost invariably crushed to

death by the first onset of the buffaloe.

The Javanese, Malay, Buggess, and Macassar, are the most cultivated languages of the archipelago. Besides the many unwritten languages of the Papuas and brown-complexioned savages, there are many written languages of tribes less powerful and improved, such as the Batta, Rejang, and Lampung of Sumatra; the Sunda of Java, the Madurese, the Bally, and the Lombhook; and further to the east some languages written in the character of Celebes, such as the Sumbhawa, Bootung, &c. In fact, the dialects of the archipelago are innumerable; but the Malay, Javanese, and Buggess are the most influential, and appear all traceable to one common source, a large proportion of the words being radically and essentially the same. There are five written characters known among the Indian islanders, all distinct in form. The barbarous island of Sumatra has no less than three peculiar and well-defined alphabets, the best invented by the Battas, a still existing cannibal nation. The uncouth and monotonous language of China never made any progress among the Eastern islanders, notwithstanding their long intercourse.

Hindoo colonies came at various times into the Eastern islands, chiefly from Telinga, and propagated the Hindoo religion and Sanscrit language; but at present, with the exception of a few mountaineers in the eastern end of Java, and the island of Bally, where it is still the prevalent worship, it appears to be entirely banished from the Eastern Archipelago. With the above exception, caste is also unknown, there being no artificial or hereditary restriction of the population to certain and peculiar occupations. Indeed, the inhabitants may be generally classed in the following gradations: the royal family, nobles, priests, free cultivators, debtors, and slaves.

Whatever be the form of government, slavery, or or least servitude, is the lot of the people, which burthen is invariably lightest, and their personal freedom greatest, where the absolute authority of one despot has superseded that of many: for wherever there exist numerous petty states, war and contention are unceasing, and the miserable people are bought and sold without mercy. Thus slavery and rapine are universal under the feudal government of Celebes; whereas in Java, the most despotic of all governments, there is no personal slavery among the natives, and in choosing their own village officers, the people enjoy a remarkable degree of freedom. Slavery in the archipelago is referable to four sources, *viz.* prisoners of war, debtors, criminals, and persons kidnapped. None but the most savage tribes destroy or eat their prisoners.

The Indian islanders first received the Mahomedan religion from the parent land of Arabia, probably about A.D. 1390, and they are still strict adherents to the orthodox doctrines of Hanifi, there being almost no sectaries, and only a few straggling Shiahs, named Rafzies. Upon the whole, with the exception of gambling and the use of intoxicating drugs, they are exemplary Mahomedans without being intolerant.

The Christian religion, as a prevailing worship, can only be said to exist in the Spice islands and the Philippines. In the latter, the converted inhabitants are nominally Catholics, and in the first nominally Protestants; yet, judging of its effects in these instances, Christianity may be viewed (independent of its other merits) as a powerful instrument of civilization. It must certainly always tend to the benefit of the governed to be of the same religious belief with their governors, nor is it possible that, while adopting the Christian faith, they should not at the same time imbibe a portion of its pure morality. The feeble efforts made to propagate Christianity by insulated and unprotected missionaries have hitherto proved nugatory and injurious, that religion being justly unpopular from its having been

introduced by intrigue (by the Portuguese and Spaniards), and propagated by sanguinary violence.

The Dutch nation as a principle of policy pursued the propagation of Christianity among the Eastern isles, and there are now several countries in which the Protestant doctrines have made considerable progress. A large proportion of the islanders, however, are still Pagans, under the influence of a wild and unintelligible superstition, administered by priests, enchanters, and dealers with invisible spirits, whom the people both dread and despise.

Marco Polo, the celebrated traveller, visited the Malayan archipelago, on his way from China to the Persian Gulf, about A.D. 1290. The Portuguese reached the Eastern isles ten years after Vasco de Gama, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, under Don Lopez de Siqueira, who, if we except the accidental visits of Marco Polo, Mandeville, and some others, may be considered the discoverer of this archipelago. In A.D. 1581, in consequence of the union of Portugal with Spain, its Indian dominions became subject to the latter. In 1602 the English, under Sir James Lancaster, made their appearance at Acheen with letters and presents from Queen Elizabeth; and in 1621 the French, under General Beaulieu, arrived with letters and presents from the king of France to the sultan of Acheen.

With respect to their present condition, moral and political, besides the evil effects of European influence as exercised by the Dutch, the tribes of the Eastern islands have been much deteriorated by their unceasing commotions, owing to the want of executive strength in the sovereign; the ill-defined succession to the throne, primogeniture not being recognized; the universal prevalence of piracy; the absence of efficient laws for the regulation of commerce, and consequent monopoly of trade by the petty chiefs, with all their arbitrary duties and extortions.—(*Crawfurd, Raffles, Forrest, Stavorinus, Singapoor Chronicle &c.*)

Ecdala.—The town and fortress of Ecdala are frequently mentioned in the histories of Bengal, and are supposed to have stood in lat. 24° 4′ N., lon. 90° 45′ E., about nineteen miles N.N.E. from Dacca, where the site of a police chokey, stationed on a small red hillock, in a thick jungle, close to the Luckia river, is still pointed out as the actual position of the fortress.

In A.D. 1353, Hyas Khan, the second independent monarch of Bengal, is said to have taken post here when his dominions were invaded by the emperor Feroze of Delhi, who advanced thus far and invested the fortress. The garrison, however, made so protracted a resistance, that the rains commenced and inundated the country, which compelled the emperor to raise the siege and retreat. Sultan Seid Hussein Khan, the ruler of Bengal from 1499 to 1520, made Ecdala his chief place of residence.—(*Stewart, Fullarton, &c.*)

Ecdallah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifty-nine miles west by N. from the fortress of Allahabad; lat. 25°34′ N., lon. 81° 1′ E.

Ederwara.—A large division of the Gujerat province, situated on the northern frontier, and bounded in that quarter by Rajpootana. It contains many half independent native rajas and thakoors, but the principal is the raja of Eder, designated, par excellence, "the Thakoor." This chieftain is fifth in descent from Ajeet Singh, who reigned over Joudpoor 107 years ago. His direct ancestor obtained possession of Eder (then an integral part of the Joudpoor kingdom) about eighty-seven years ago, Ajeet Singh having then expelled another Rahtore chief called the Row, whose descendants still hold the small but strong pergunnah of Pola, situated on the hills between Eder and Odeypoor, from whence they still issue and harass the usurpers.

The Eder principality, although open towards the west, is naturally very strong, abounding in rivers, hills, and forests. The soil is fertile and the numerous mangoe trees indicate the existence of a denser population at some former period; at present, however, a large proportion of the surface is overrun with woods and jungles. In 1820, the revenues of Eder amounted to four lacks of rupees, without including its dependencies; but not more than one lack ever reached the Rajas treasury, the residue being allotted to eight chiefs, who held lands of him, under the Rajpoot denomination of Patayet. Prior to this date, the tribute to the Guicowar had been fixed by Major Ballantine at 24,000 rupees per anum, one fourth paid by the raja, and the remainder by his patayets. Besides these feudatories, this principality contains three petty states, named Ahmednuggur, Morassa, and Bar. Jaspers are obtained from the Eder mountains eighty miles north of Ahmedabad, and the ridge of mountains which separates Guzerat from Marwar, abounds with various sorts of marble.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Eder.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the capital of the preceding division, sixty-four miles N. by E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23°53′ N., lon. 72° 3′ E. In A.D. 1820, this place was conjectured to contain 2,500 houses, which would give a population of about 12,000 inhabitants. Morassa is less than Eder, and Ahmednuggur. Although situate dwithin the walls of a magnificent fort constructed by the Mahomedan kings of Gujerat, it is only a large village.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Edmonstone's Isle.—An island of alluvial formation in the province of Bengal, situated about lat. 21° 35′ N., lon. 88° 50′ E., where it occupies the position formerly laid down in the charts as Sagor shoal. This addition to the Bengal province was first brought into notice by the marine survey of 1816, for in 1813 it had not yet raised its head above water. In 1818, it got one stage beyond a sand bank, and was visited by wood-cutters and fishermen, who erected two huts thereon dedicated to Siva. Still advancing, a bungalow was erected by subscription for the accommodation of invalids, requiring the refreshing influence of the sea breeze and a maritime situation. Just at this crisis, however, the sea interfered, swept away the bungalow, and for a time submerged the island, which, however, reappeared again, and in 1821, a flag staff one hundred feet high and a small bungalow were erected on it.

Echauk.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 103 miles S.S.E. from Patna; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 85° 46′ E. This place stands nine miles N.E. from the military station of Hazarybaugh, and is the residence of the Raja of Echauk. This is one of the largest zemindaries in the Ramghur district, and comprehends nearly the whole tract of country through which the great Benares road passes from Chuss to Hazarybaugh. The British judicial regulations have not yet been extended to this zemindary, where the raja continues to exercise a certain police jurisdiction.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Eedilabad.—A small walled town in the province of Candeish, situated on the river Purna near its junction with the Tuptee, twenty-three miles travelling distance S.S.W. from Boorhanpoor. This place had been repeatedly plundered by the Pindaries, and in 1820 contained only one inhabited street. Lat. 21° 4′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E.—(*Fullarton &c.*)

Eesaughur.—A strong fort in the province of Malwa, thirty-nine miles N.W. from Chenderee; lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E. This place is the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, and has a large pettah that extends round the north and west sides of the fort.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Eetul.—An inland town in the province of Canara, nineteen miles

S.S.E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E.

Efbe.—A harbour in the Eastern seas, situated on the south coast of Mysol island, and formed by a small islet also named Efbé. On shore there is a village where refreshments for ships may be had.

Eidgheer.—A small district in the province of Hyderabad, extending along the east bank of the Beema river, which bounds it on the west. The principal towns are Eidgheer, Ferozeghur, and Dowletabad. The town of Eidgheer is situated in lat. 16° 35′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E., 100 miles S.W. from the city of Hyderabad.

Einuru (or Yenasoor).—A small town in the province of Canara; lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 75° 16′ E. This place contains eight temples belonging to the Jains, and one to the Siva Brahmins. The first have an allowance of fourteen pagodas, and the last of ten pagodas. As the Jain votaries are here more numerous than those of Siva, their temples have the largest endowments; but while the native officers of government are mostly Brahmins, pretences will never be wanting for distressing the Jain temples. At Einuru there is an immense colossal statue of one of the gods worshipped by the Jains, cut from a solid mass of granite, and standing in the open air.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Elephanta Isle.—A small island in the province of Aurungabad, situated in the bay of Bombay, about seven miles from the castle, and five from the Maharatta shore. By the natives it is named Goraporí, and consists of two long hills, with a narrow valley intervening; the whole about six miles in circumference. The usual landing-place is towards the south, where the valley is broadest, About 250 yards to the right of the landing-place, on the acclivity of one of the hills, there formerly stood a large and clumsy elephant, cut out of the insulated black rock, from which figure the island acquired its European name; but in September 1814 the neck and head of the elephant dropped off, and the body has since sunk in such a manner as to threaten its fall.

The great temple is about 130 feet long, measuring from the chief entrance to the furthest end of the cave; and 123 broad, from the eastern to the western entrance. It rests on twenty-six pillars (eight of them, in 1813, broken) and sixteen pilasters, and neither the roof nor the floor being in one plane, it varies in height from seventeen and a half to fifteen feet. The plan is regular, there being eight pillars and pilasters in a line from the northern entrance to the southern extreme, and the same number from the eastern to the western entrances. In the centre is a gigantic Trimurti, or three-formed god. Brahma, the creator, is in the middle, with Vishnu, the preserver, on one side, and Siva, the destroyer, on the other. The last holds in his hands a cobra capella, or hooded snake, and on his cap, among other symbols, are a human skull and a young infant. To the right is a large compartment, hollowed a little, and carved with a great variety of figures, the largest of which, sixteen feet high, represents the double figure of Siva and Parvati, named Viraj, half male, half female. on the right of Viraj is Brahma, four-faced, sitting on a lotus; and on the left is Vishnu, sitting on the shoulders of his eagle Garuda. Near Brahma are Indra and Indrani on their elephant, and below is a female figure holding a chowry. On the other side of the Trimurti, or triad, is another compartment, with various figures of Siva and Parvati; the most remarkable of which is the first, in his vindictive character, eight-handed, with a chaplet of skulls round his neck.

Besides the above there are innumerable mythological figures, which cannot be rendered intelligible without the assistance of plates, having been much defaced by visitors, and by the zeal of the Portuguese, who made war on the gods and temples, as well

as on the armies of India; fragments of statues strew the floor; columns deprived of their bases adhere to the roof, and there split, and without capitals. All the Hinduo deities have particular symbols by which they may be distinguished, much as European families may be discriminated by their armorial bearings. The excavations of Kenneri and Carli evidently belong to the Buddhists; those of Elephanta and Amboli to the Brahmins; while Elora possesses excavations of both classes. The cave here is not now in use as a temple, nor is it a place of pilgrimage, or possessed of any sacerdotal establishment, although devotees from the neighbourhood make occasional offerings of prayers and oblations. Considering the pains bestowed on it, it must at some period have been held in greater estimation, and the Brahmins generally disregard imperfect or mutilated images. Nothing, however, presents itself among these excavations that can lead to a satisfactory solution of the important and curious question, in what age and by what tribe or dynasty was this vast temple completed?

The rock out of which the temple is carved is not calculated to resist for any length of time the ravages of the weather, and it evidently suffers much from the annual rains. Prior to 1824 a great number of the pillars (nearly one-third of the whole) had been undermined by the accumulation of water in the cavern, and the capitals of some, and parts of the shafts of others remained suspended from the top like huge stalactites, the bases having completely mouldered away. These ravages appear to be annually making quicker progress, although for many years back the cave has been protected from all wanton spoliation.

A similar rapidity of decomposition has occurred in the elephant, which when seen by Neibuhr was far more perfect than at present. If half a century, therefore, can produce such changes in this celebrated temple, it is hardly reasonable to suppose that any part of it is of very profound antiquity. It is now also generally allowed to have been dedicated to Siva, the popular deity of the modern Hindoos in this quarter of India. Even now, though guarded by an European serjeant appointed to preserve it from the injury of man, the climate does its work of devastation, and it appears probable that in process of time not much will remain to evince what the temple was in the days of its glory.—(*Erskine, Moor, M. Graham, &c.*)

ELGUNDEL.—A large district in the province of Hyderabad, of which it occupies the northern extremity. Its limits are quite undefined, and the condition of its interior equally uncertain with that of the Nizam's dominions generally, which appear likely to remain a sort of terra incognita. The town of Elgundel stands on the north side of the small river Punnair, seventy-five miles N.N.E from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 18° 17′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E.

ELIANGOODY.—An extensive, populous, and neatly built village in the Carnatic province, district of Madura, twenty-five miles travelling distance from Ramnad. In 1820 it belonged to the poligar of Shevagunga.

ELLICHPOOR.—A city in the province of Berar, of which it is the proper capital, although that distinction is usually assigned to Nagpoor, which is not within its limits; lat. 21° 14′ N., lon. 77° 36′ E. It is situated between the Sarpan and Beechun rivers, which form a junction in the vicinity, and afterwards fall into the Poornu. It is a place of no strength, being only in part surrounded by a wall; but the bazars and houses near the nabob's palace are of brick, and in the neighbourhood are the tombs of several Mussulmaun saints which stand conspicuous.

Ellichpoor was conquered by the Mahomedans under Allah ud Deen so early as A.D. 1294, but it has since experienced many vicissitudes, and until recently has been undergoing a rapid decline. At present it

is held by Salabut Khan, one of the Nizam's jaghiredars, whose dependence, however, is little more than nominal. This chief established a claim on the British government by his steady attachment, and was in 1818 rewarded accordingly with some lands abstracted from the territories of the Nagpoor Raja and Poona Maharattas. Prior, however, to this event he had allowed his authority to be usurped by Futteh Jung Khan, originally a private trooper, who had raised himself to the chief command, tyrannized over his nominal master, and assassinated his relations. In 1820 it required the interposition of the British government and the approach of a strong detachment, to effect his removal to Aurungabad, where he soon after died. On this occasion an arrangement was effected, by which Salabut Khan's quota was reduced to 650 infantry and 600 horse, but to be kept efficient in every respect for active military service. Travelling distance from Nagpoor, 122 miles; from Hyderabad, 319; from Poona, 380; from Delhi, 604; from Madras, 671; and from Calcutta, 844 miles. —(*Public MS. Documents, Leckie, Rennell, Fitzclarence, Blacker, &c.*)

Ellore (*Elura*).—This is one of the five original Northern Circars, but at present mostly comprehended in the modern district and collectorate of Masulipatam. The Ellore and Condapilly circars occupy the whole of the space between the Krishna and Godavery rivers; the Masulipatam circar towards the sea; the inland province of Cummumait, in the Nizam's territories towards the west, and the jeel or lake of Colair, which is chiefly formed by the overflowings of the above two rivers. Its superficial contents may be estimated at 2,700 square miles, exclusive of the high mountainous tract on the west, the limits of which are quite undefined.—(*J. Grant, &c.*)

Ellore.—A town in the Northern Circars, 183 miles travelling distance from Hyderabad; lat. 16° 43′ N., lon. 81° 15′ E. This is a larger town than any to be found in the direct route from hence to Madras, and is in fact the residence of the collector of the Masulipatam district. Some part of the principal bazar is built with considerable regularity, and the shops, with wooden fronts, resemble those in the west of India; none, however, exceed one story. A battalion of sepoys is usually cantoned here.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Elmore.—A town in the Northern Circars, sixteen miles N. by E. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 26′ N., lon. 84° 10′ E.

Elmunchilly.—A village in the Northern Circars, district of Vizagapatam, forty miles travelling distance S.W. from the town of Vizagapatam. This place stands in a luxuriant valley ornamented with clusters of date-trees, and environed on all sides with green mountains. There is a temple at one extremity of this village containing an image of Vira Bhadra, remarkable for its rude and fantastical sculptures; and another, dedicated to Gopaul Swami, overlooks the village from a hill above. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Elora (*Elura*).—A village in the province of Aurungabad, near to the city of Dowlatabad; lat. 19° 58′ N., lon. 75° 23′ E. It is surrounded by an extensive wall of stone, and covers with its ruins a considerable space on the plain near to the base of the ridge of hills in which the caves are situated, but in 1820 it was nearly depopulated. Outside the town a very handsome temple of Siva and a fine reservoir were constructed by the celebrated Maharatta princess Alia Bhye, and other temples of inferior dimensions have been erected by other Hindoo chiefs. The Emperor Aurengzebe also erected a small mosque, probably to mortify the Brahmins, immediately opposite to the entrance of Cailas.

In a mountain about a mile to the east of this place are some remarkable excavations of Hindoo temples, which in magnitude and perfection of execution surpass any thing of

the kind in India, but which it is impossible to render intelligible without the assistance of plates. The cave temples occupy a considerable extent of surface, but at first do not strike the mind as any thing wonderful, until they are discovered to be all one solid mass of rock. The following are the dimensions of Cailas and the great temple, both, however, parts of the same excavation.

Dimensions of Cailas:

Height of the gateway......Feet.	14
Passage of the gateway, having on each side rooms fifteen feet by nine	42
Inner area or court.—Length from the gateway to the opposite scarp	247
Ditto ditto breadth......	150
Greatest height of the rock out of which the court is excavated	100

Dimensions of the grand temple:

Door of the portico twelve feet high by six broad, length from the door of the portico, entering the temple, to the back wall of the temple	103
Length from the same place to the end of the raised platform behind the temple..............	142
Greatest breadth of the inner part of the temple	61
Height of the ceiling	18

The symbols seen in these excavations tend to prove that they were formed some by devotees of the Brahminical doctrines, and others by those of the Buddhists; but at present they are visited by no pilgrim of either persuasion, nor are they held in the slightest veneration. They may be divided into three classes: the northern, which are Buddhist or possibly Jain; the central, which are Brahminical; and the southern, which are certainly Buddhist. All the Brahminical caves are evidently sacred to Siva. The four southern excavations are purely Buddhist, being filled with curly-headed Buddhist figures.

Besides the remarkable excavation called the cave of Vishwa Karma, which is a lofty hall with a vaulted roof, like the great Buddhist cave of Carli, and contains a colossal image of Buddha, to which the ciceroni of the place give the name of Vishwa Karma, there are six other principal excavations, some in the northern others in the southern quarter of the mountain, filled with sculptures which appear to be all repetitions of the effigy of Buddha. In the caves that are decidedly Brahminical, Siva and Bhavani seem to have been the presiding deities. The grand cave called Cailas, certainly a most extraordinary work, belongs to this class, and nearly the whole Hindoo pantheon is ranged along the gallery excavated in the perpendicular wall of rock which forms the exterior margin of the court or area; but the lingam alone occupies the sanctuary of the temple. In some of the Buddhist caverns there are naked saintly images, not unlike the Digamber or naked figures of the Jains, whereas Buddhist images are generally Swetamber, or clothed.

At the temple of Nilkhantha there is a regular establishment of Brahmins, being probably the only cave at which worship is still performed, although at all of them there is a Brahmin waiting to levy a contribution on strangers. Besides the cave temples above described, there are many smaller excavations in the face of the rock, not distinguished by sculptures or any other peculiarity, which had probably been intended to serve as dwellings for the officiating priests and other attendants. During the rainy season, the scenery about the caves of Doomar, Leyna, and Dehrwara is much embellished by cascades, said to be of considerable volume.

The Brahmins on the spot assert that these caves were formed by Eeloo Raja of Ellichpoor, 7,914 years ago; but as they are found in the neighbourhood of Deoghir, or Tagara (now Dowletabad), which prior to the Mahomedan conquest in A.D. 1293, was the capital of a powerful Hindoo principality, they probably originated in the superstitions of the

reigning families at that metropolis. By the last treaty with Holcar, the village of Elora and lands attached were transferred to the British government; but in 1820, when Mr. Fullarton was on the spot the local functionaries were preparing to make them over to the Nizam, in pursuance of some arrangement with that potentate, for the adjustment of our respective boundaries.—(*Fullarton, Fitzclarence, Erskine, Mallet, &c.*)

EMBEHOTTY.—A town in the province of Oude, eighteen miles S.E. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 18′ N., lon. 81° 3′ E.

EMINABAD (*Aminabad*).—A town in the province of Lahore, twenty-nine miles north from the city of Lahore; lat. 31° 59′ N., lon. 74° 5′ E.

EMLY.—A small town in the province of Delhi, sixteen miles west from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 56′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E.

EMROKE.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty-three miles S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 50′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E.

ENDE ISLE.—See FLORIS.

ENGANO ISLE.—A small island about thirty miles in circumference, lying off the south-west coast of the island of Sumatra; lat. 5° 20′ S., lon. 102° 20′ E. In A.D. 1771 it was visited by a vessel sent by the governor and council of Bencoolen to explore the country and report on its productions. Owing to the petty thefts of the natives and the imprudent conduct of the crew, hostilities soon arose between them, which frustrated the purpose of the expedition. On approaching the shore, large plantations of cocoa-nut trees were discovered, with several spots of ground cleared out for cultivation. Canoes came off to the ship with cocoa-nuts, sugar-canes, toddy, and a species of yam.

The inhabitants are taller and fairer than the Malays, their hair black, which the men cut short, and the women wear long, and neatly turned up. The first go entirely naked, except that they sometimes throw a piece of the bark of a tree or of a plantain leaf over their shoulders, to protect them from the heat of the sun. The last go also quite naked, with the exception of a plantain leaf round the waist. The ears of both men and women have large holes made in them, an inch or two in diameter, into which they put a ring made of cocoa-nut shell, or a roll of leaves. They do not chew betel, nor is their language (probably a branch of the Polynesian) yet ascertained.

Their canoes are formed of thin planks sewed together, sharp-pointed at each end, provided with out-riggers, and capable of carrying six or seven men. They always carry lances, not only as offensive weapons, but also for the purpose of striking fish. These lances are about seven feet long, formed of hard woods, some tipped with pieces of bamboo made sharp, and the concave part filled up with fish bones and sharks' teeth. Some lances are armed with pieces of bone made sharp and notched, others pointed with sharp bits of iron and copper.

The soil of the island is for the most part a red clay, and the productions the same as are usually found on the south coast of Sumatra. No rice has been seen among the inhabitants, nor have cattle or fowls of any kind been observed about their houses, which are circular, raised on posts, floored with planks, and about eight feet in diameter. The Malays, who are much addicted to the marvellous, formerly believed that all the inhabitants of Engano were females.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

ENGLISH BAZAR.—A considerable town thus named in the province of Bengal, about four miles distance from Malda, the head-quarters of the commercial resident.

ENORE (*Ennur*).—A village in the Carnatic, eight miles north from Madras; lat. 13° 13′ N., lon. 80° 23′ E. This place stands on the banks of a small salt-water lake, which contains

abundance of fine fish and excellent oysters. A society in Madras have built here by subscription a house on the edge of the lake, where there is a weekly meeting to eat fish, play cards, and sail on the lake in pleasure boats, a diversion which cannot be enjoyed any where near Madras on account of the surf. The town stands on a flat sandy bank, and contains about 100 native huts and two European houses, besides the subscription hotel.—(*M. Graham, &c.*)

Eras.—See Lanca.

Erech.—An ancient town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the right bank of the Betwa river, nine miles E. by S. from Sumpter; lat. 25° 49′ N., lon. 79° 2′ E.

Erroor.—A small town on the sea-coast of the Malabar province, fifty miles S. by E from Calicut; lat. 10° 36′ N., lon. 76° 4′ E.

Erroad (*Erodu*).—A town in the Coimbatoor province, fifty-five miles N.E. from the town of Coimbatoor; lat. 11° 21′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E. During Hyder's government the suburbs of Erroad contained about 3,000 houses. Tippoo's reign reduced them one-third, and all that remained were destroyed during the invasion of General Meadows. It has greatly recovered since that era, and in 1801 contained above 400 houses, with a battalion of sepoys in a large mud fort. The canal passing Erroad from the Bhavani is an excellent work, and waters a narrow space of ground fifteen Malabar hours' journey in length. The best land here in 1801 let for £2. 7*s.* per acre; the worst for 11*s.* 4*d.* The dry field is from 5*s.* 10*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per acre.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Esaghar.—A hill fort in the province of Aurungabad, division of Jooneer, situated above the village of Carli, and close to the strong fortress of Loghur, about thirty-six miles travelling distance N.W. from Poona.

Esaunagur.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twelve miles S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 56′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

Etaweh (*Atava*).—A district in the province of Agra, consisting principally of territory in the Doab, ceded to the British in 1801, and situated principally between the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Furruckabad and Alighur districts; on the south by that of Caunpoor; to the east are the Oude dominions; and on the west, Agra, and the territories of various petty chiefs. Etaweh being itself a large component part of the Doab properly so called, a considerable proportion of what is there stated, with reference to soil, productions, climate, and commerce, applies particularly to this collectorate, and need not be here repeated. The principal towns are Minpooree (the modern capital, and residence of the judge); Etaweh, the ancient one; Kanoje, Belah, Sindouse, and Shekoabad. The roads to most of the largest cities in the Doab pass through this district, which is consequently much frequented by merchants and travellers.

In 1807 Etaweh was described in the government records as being thinly peopled; the inhabitants indigent, and martial rather than agricultural; while the ravages of depredators from the neighbouring states, and internal commotions, checked its advances in husbandry, and otherwise retarded its prosperity. In 1812, not only the pergunnah of Sindouse, but many others situated on the west side of the river Jumna, on account of their disorderly condition, required the especial attention of government, and even the interference of a military force. Owing to the nature of this tract of country, it was in the power of twenty or thirty men with matchlocks to stop the navigation of the Jumna with impunity, and when pursued, they concealed themselves in the ravines with which the country is intersected. These predatory parties greatly injured the annual fair at Buttersur, which, if properly pro-

[illegible] might have been rendered an [illegible] the Doab [illegible] by patrols stationed on the banks of the Chumbul, to check the lawless tribes on the opposite shore; but before so great an expense be incurred, it is desirable that the districts in this quarter of Hindostan be surveyed and new limited.

In A.D. 1813 this district was said to contain 4,741,76[illegible] cucha or small begahs in cultivation, assessed at [illegible] rupees, which amount was realized within two and a quarter per cent.; the average rate being about twelve annas per begah. The number of villages was 2,31[illegible]; the quantity of land fit for cultivation 6,75[illegible] begahs, and of waste 1,781,504 begahs. The gaol of Etawah is reckoned the best situated, most commodious, and best executed gaol in the north-western provinces, and throughout the year 1813-14 contained on an average [illegible] prisoners.—(*The Marquis of Hastings, Guthrie, Sir E. Colebrooke, Kerr, Blunt, &c.*)

Etawah.—A town in the province of Agra, formerly the capital of the preceding district; lat. 26° 47′ N., lon. 79° [illegible] E.; seventy miles S.E. from Agra. This place stands on the east bank of the Jumna, many parts of which, during the dry season, are almost sixty feet above the water in its bed. The town is built on the heights, and as it approaches the river is divided into a number of separate hillocks by deep ravines. While the [illegible] are at the highest the [illegible] lands and sandbanks being then submerged.

[illegible]

Faifo.—A [illegible] formerly the [illegible] of the northern provinces of Cochin China, but which [illegible] the civil wars which so long agitated that country. In 1818 two strong forts, built by French engineers, command the entrance of the bay of Turon and harbour of Faifo. At that date a considerable portion of the inhabitants were Chinese or their descendants, but the town was much impoverished and frequented only by small craft.—(*[illegible], White, &c.*)

Falcon.—A town in the province of Lahore, close to the north bank of the Sutuleje river, [illegible] miles N.N.W. from Ludhiana; lat. 31° N., lon. 75° 51′ E.

Futtehabad (*Fatehabad, the city of victory*).—A town in the Delhi province, fifty-two miles S.S.E. from the city of Lahore; lat. 29° 5[illegible]′ N., lon. 74° 3[illegible]′ E.

Futteh[illegible].—A town in the province of Aurungabad, fifteen miles N.E. from Jaulna; lat. 19° [illegible] N., lon. 76° 10′ E.

Futtehabad (*the victorious residence*).—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-four miles E. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° [illegible] N., lon. 78° [illegible] E.

Futtehpoor (*Fatehpur, the city of victory*).—A town in the province of Agra, surrounded by a stone wall, the capital of the country bestowed on Ahmed Buksh Khan, whose territories comprehend the [illegible]

FIROSHAUR.—A town in the province of Hyderabad, 165 miles S.W. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 16°25′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

FIROZPOOR.—A small fort and village above Suchatal, in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, where Timour is supposed to have crossed the Ganges; lat. 29° 30′ N.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

FLORIS (*or Endé*) ISLAND.—A large island in the eastern seas, situated between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude, and the 120th and 123d of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at 200 miles, by thirty-six the average breadth. The proper name of this island appears to be Endé, it having been denominated Floris by the early Portuguese writers, and after them by succeeding voyagers and geographers. Viewed from the sea this island appears hilly, and on the south side there are several conical volcanic mountains, of great elevation, one of which exploded in 1810, with much uproar.

Endé, the principal port of Floris, is situated near the south coast, and has an excellent harbour; indeed the only one to be found on the southern shores of all the islands from Java head to Ombay. It was formerly subordinate to the Dutch residency at Coopang; but about A.D. 1812 was occupied by a Buggess colony, who reject all European intercourse and authority. Before this event its exports consisted principally of slaves, gold dust, bees'-wax, cocoa-nut oil, sandal-wood, birds'-nests, and tortoiseshell, which trade employed about fifty Buggess prows. The only territory in possession of any European power is the eastern portion in the neighbourhood of Larantooka, where the natives have nearly been all converted to the Christian religion by the Portuguese (who have a church at Larantooka), under whose dominion they still continue, and by whom large quantities of sandal-wood are annually sent to Dhelli in Timor. The western end of Floris, called by the natives Mangeray, was colonized from Bima in Sumbhawa, to which state, until 1819, it was subordinate; but in that year it revolted and set up the standard of independence.

The sea-coast of Floris has been colonized by Malays and Buggesses, while the interior is occupied by the aboriginal natives, respecting whom little is known, except that their physical appearance corresponds more with that of the Papuas than with the natives of Timor. They appear to be subdivided into innumerable petty communities, some consisting of not more than one village, and, like all barbarians in a similar stage, cursed with a never-ceasing hatred to their neighbours; a perpetual warfare is the consequence, during which slaves are made on both sides, and sold for exportation to Macassar and the other ports of Celebes.—(*Malay Miscellanies, Bligh, Leyden, Milburn, &c.*)

FORMOSA (*or Tywan*).—A large island lying off the south-eastern coast of China, distant about 200 miles, between the twenty-third and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 180 miles, by fifty the average breadth. The proper name of this island is Tywan, though called Formosa by Europeans, and it is about 200 miles distant from Manilla in the Philippines.

According to Chinese accounts Formosa was not discovered until A.D. 1430, and then only by accident, after which it remained wholly unnoticed for 134 years; nor was it at last occupied by the Chinese until 1661, by which time the European settlers had rendered it worth possessing. The Dutch at an early period established a settlement, and exercised considerable authority. In 1625 the viceroy of the Philippines sent an expedition, which landed on that part of Formosa next the island of Luzon, where they erected fortifications in order to oppose the Dutch, and also to propagate the Roman Catholic religion. In 1630

the Dutch governor, Neyts, treacherously seized some Japanese vessels, which were afterwards liberated by the address and bravery of their crews. Prior to this period the island does not appear to have been subject to the Chinese empire. About the middle of the seventeenth century Formosa afforded a retreat to twenty or thirty thousand Chinese, unwilling to submit to the Munchew conquerors of their country. These refugees carried on a great and lucrative trade with their countrymen in China, and produced considerable revenue to the Dutch government, every person above seven years of age paying a capitation tax of half a guilder per mensem. The island also being at no great distance from Japan, the Dutch Company's factory had an advantageous trade with that rich empire. From 1642 to 1662, while the Dutch possessed Formosa, they procured their teas through that channel, which is still the most natural, being in the vicinity of the tea-producing provinces.

In 1653 the Chinese inhabitants of Formosa entered into a conspiracy against the Dutch, which was suppressed with the assistance of the original natives. Soon after this, Coxinga (Kue Sing Kong), the governor of the maritime province of Tchichiang in China, applied for permission to retire to the island with his followers, to escape the invaders; but his proposal was rejected by the Dutch governor. Coxinga in consequence ordered all the Chinese to join him on the continent, which summons was obeyed by one half, and in order to distress the rest he prohibited all intercourse, and declared war against the Dutch. Two years afterwards peace was restored, but Coxinga, finding his situation in China insecure, determined to establish a more independent sovereignty in Formosa, and in consequence resolved to invade that island, being encouraged by the ruinous state of the Dutch fortifications.

In March 1661 he arrived at Tywan or Formosa with a fleet of 600 vessels, and made himself m[illegible] of the town and adjacent country, and afterwards besieged Fort Zealand. The Dutch made several ineffectual efforts to relieve it, but were each time repulsed with considerable slaughter. At length the governor, Westburgh, having sustained a close siege as long as it was possible to resist, was obliged to surrender on the 5th July of that year, and the survivors of the garrison were allowed to embark on board the Dutch ships. This was a severe blow to the Dutch East-India Company, as while they retained Formosa they could control the commerce of the Spaniards, Portuguese, and Chinese, and had a place of refreshment for their ships trading to Japan.

Coxinga, not long after he had completed the conquest, sent a messenger to the Philippines, requiring payment of tribute from the Spaniards. He also engaged in war with the emperor of China on the mainland, and was afterwards defeated and slain in a naval battle against the united fleets of the Dutch and Chinese. His followers then withdrew from the coast of China in 200 vessels, but the place of their subsequent retreat has never been ascertained. Notwithstanding this victory, the allies could make no impression on Formosa, it was so well defended by Coxinga's uncle, Tavia, and afterwards by his son, Tching King May.

After Coxinga's death it is probable that the dynasty continued to be distinguished by his name, as the records of the East-India Company in 1671 mention a war between the King of Java and Coxsin the chief of Formosa, whose power at that period controlled the Sultan of Jambee on Sumatra, and of Johore on the Malay peninsula. In 1676 the English East-India Company had a factory on Formosa, the principal object of which was, through this medium, to carry on a trade with Japan. At that period the chief exports from Formosa were fine copper and gold, both probably in the first instance procured from Japan.

In the year 1683 the reigning prince, Tching Ki San, voluntarily surrendered his dominions to the Emperor of China, who settled a pension on him; and, having thus easily acquired Formosa, garrisoned it with a strong body of troops, and with him it has remained until the beginning of the present century. In 1805 the Ladrones, or pirates, had acquired possession of a great part of the south-western coast, which exported a great deal of grain to the province of Fokien in China.—(*Macpherson, Bruce, Zuniga, Krusenstern, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Forwak Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, extending thirty-six miles along the east side of the gulf of Siam. It produces agilla-wood, has a sea-slug fishery, and in 1820 was said to contain 2,000 inhabitants.

Foolkyta.—A small walled town in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Row of Ooniara, situated among wooded hills at the entrance of a pass leading from the Tonk pergunnah to that of Ooniara, sixty-four miles travelling distance south from Jeypoor.

Fort Hastings.—A small fort in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, recently erected by the British government on the site of the Gorkha fort (or rather fastness) of Ketalghur, about three miles west from the frontier station of Lohooghaut; lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E., twenty-five miles S.E. from Almora. This fort stands on the narrow but level summit of a commanding eminence, about 500 feet above the cantonment at Lohooghaut, and 6,381 feet above the level of the sea. The ramparts are irregularly formed to correspond with the margin of the cliff, with a parapet and loop-holes all round, and bastions at the angles; the whole, as well as the buildings within, constructed of an extremely compact gneiss, much better adapted for masonry than the loose schistose rock used at Almora. The hill is insulated and of very difficult ascent, and the only gate is protected by a palisade, so that with a small garrison of 200 or 300 men it would be almost impregnable.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Fort King.—A substantial fort in the island of Ceylon, which commands the ferry of a considerable stream, eighteen miles W.S.W. from Candy, and 631 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 17° 13′ N., lon. 80° 34′ E. The surrounding country is productive, and a bazar has sprung up in the vicinity of the fort, where in 1816 nothing but jungle was to be seen.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Fort Macdonald.—A military station in Ceylon, in the province of Upper Ouva, thirty-eight miles S.S.E. from Candy; lat. 6° 49′ N., lon. 81° 3′ E. This post stands 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but the summit of a pass two miles distant is about 1,500 feet higher.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Fort Macdowal.—A military post in the island of Ceylon, first established in 1803, but which soon disappeared. Since the conquest of the Candian provinces it has been reconstructed, and permanently occupied, being on the high road from Candy to Trincomalee; lat. 7° 30′ N., lon. 80° 48′ E., fourteen miles north from Candy.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Fort Marlborough.—(See Bencoolen.)

Fort William.—(See Calcutta.)

Fort St. David.—A fortress on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, sixteen miles south from Pondicherry, and 100 S.S.W. from Madras; lat. 11° 45′ N., lon. 79° 50′ E. The factory here was first established in A.D. 1691, when the Court of Directors ordered a purchase to be made from the Rajah Raja of a new settlement named Tegnapatam, which was accordingly done, and re-named Fort St. David, the territory thus acquired being larger than that of Madras. In 1698 it was discovered that a plot had been arranged by Dr. Blackwell, the garrison surgeon, to deliver up this for-

tress to Zulficar Khan, Aurengzebe's general, who was then besieging the Ram Raja in Ginjee, in recompense for which he was promised a large sum of money, and the government of Portonovo. He was seized and carried to Madras, where he made full confession of his treachery, which comprehended also the seizure of all the English settlements on the Coromandel coast. After the capture of Madras in 1746, by the French under M. de la Bourdonnais, the British factory retired hither, and were again besieged, but without success. From this period it continued the head of the British settlements in this quarter until 1758, when it was taken by M. Lally, after a short siege. The French then completely demolished the fortifications, which were never rebuilt, and remain now very much in the same state as M. Lally left them. For this dilapidation a severe retribution followed, when Pondicherry surrendered in 1761.—(*Orme, Bruce, Wilks, &c.*)

Fortified Island (*or Baswa Rasa Durga*).—A small island in the province of Canara, about one mile in circumference, situated a short distance north from the entrance of Onore Bay. It was originally fortified by an Ikeri raja, and greatly strengthened by Tippoo, who intended to make it his naval arsenal.

Fringybazar.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the west side of the Dullasery river (formed of a branch of the Ganges and one of the Brahmaputra), about thirteen miles S.W. of Dacca; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 90° 23′ E.

Fuga Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about thirty-five miles in circumference, one of the Philippines, and situated due north from the large island of Luzon or Luçonia; lat. 19° N., lon. 121° 30′ E.

Fukok (*or Paulok*).—A large island, apparently 2,000 feet high, lying off the coast of Cambodia, a little to the north of the Cancao river; lat. 10° 17′ N., lon. 104° 16′ E. It has a triangular form, thirty-four miles in extreme length, sixteen in extreme breadth, and generally covered with thick woods and luxuriant vegetation. In 1821 it belonged to the Cochin Chinese, and was frequented periodically by Chinese and Cochin Chinese in search of sea-slugs and aguila-wood.—(*Finlayson, &c.*)

Fulgo River (*Phalgu*).—A river in the province of Bahar, formed above Gaya by two immense torrents, named the Mohané and the Nilajan. The first enters the Bahar zillah from Ramghur, twenty miles S.E. of Gaya; the last about eleven miles south from the same place. When it reaches the high and rocky shore of Gaya, the channel of this river, where free of islands, is about 500 yards broad, and when filled by the periodical monsoon, its floods rush past that city with tremendous noise and velocity. It is usually said that the sacred portion of the Fulgo, which extends about half a mile, occasionally flows with milk, but the entire stream has been long noted for its sanctity.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Fulta (*Phalata, fertility*).—A large village in the province of Bengal situated on the east bank of the Hooghly river, twenty miles S.S.W. from Calcutta in a straight direction, but much more following the curvatures of the river; lat. 22° 19′ N., lon. 88° 20′ E. The anchorage here is safe, ships being protected from the swell of the sea. The bottom is a stiff clay, in which anchors hold so fast that it is difficult to weigh them.

Funnalaghur.—A small fort in the province of Candeish, built on a conical peak on the summit of the Satpoora mountains, formerly of considerable strength and importance, but now in ruins. Near to Funnalaghur there was a pass called Kookrecum ghaut, leading to Bheekungaum, but not now frequented. The fort stands eighteen miles N.W. from Laowda, and ten miles N. of Beawul; lat. 21° 24′ N., lon. 75° 47′ E. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Furdapoor.—A village with a fine serai belonging to the Nizam, situated on the Berar frontier just below the Ajuntee ghaut.

Fureedabad.—A small town in the province of Delhi, from the capital of which it is distant fifteen miles south; lat. 28° 26′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E. This place is remarkable for a large tank with a ruined banquetting house on its margin. There is also a large grove of tamarind trees, but no mangoes, few of which grow in the province of Delhi, owing to the unusual multitude of white ants, to whose increase ruins and a dry soil are favourable; indeed the whole country in this vicinity is barren and disagreeable, and the water bad. The white ant always attacks the mango in preference to all other trees.

Fureedpoor.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the south side of the Puddah (Padma), or great Ganges, five miles from the bank of that river, and forty miles from the city of Dacca. This is the head-quarters and residence of the judge and magistrate and civil establishment of the zillah of Dacca Jelalpoor.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Fureedpoor.—A town with a good serai in the province of Delhi, district of Bareilly, ten miles S. by E. from the city of Delhi.

Furrah.—A small village with the remains of a mud fort (now converted to a saltpetre manufactory) in the province of Agra, district of Agra, situated on the high road from Agra to Mathura. This place is built within the enclosure of what has been an extensive serai, the walls of which are still preserved as a means of defence. On a little hill in the neighbourhood is a square mud fort, with a round bastion on each flank, and a little outwork before the gate. Formerly all the villages in this part of Hindostan were provided with a similar fort, where the peasantry and their families might seek refuge on the approach of their enemies. The strength of the British government, and the internal peace which has in consequence prevailed, has rendered these precautions, as well as the walls and towers of greater towns, to be almost universally neglected; yet even in these times of tranquillity they may occasionally have their value.

Furrishpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, seventeen miles from Ashta, which in 1820 was supposed to contain about 1,000 houses.—(*MS., &c.*)

Furruckabad (*Farakhabad, a happy residence*).—A district in the province of Agra, situated in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, and between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Bareily and Alighur; to the south by Etaweh and Cawnpoor; on the east it has Bareily, and on the west Alighur. This zillah, compared with the adjacent ones, is of small extent, and from its locality exempt from many disadvantages to which they are liable. Its jurisdiction comprises only thirteen police stations, and being almost surrounded by the judicial subdivisions of Cawnpoor, Etaweh, Alighur, and Bareily, it cannot be molested by foreign banditti unless they first penetrate through some of these magistracies, and it is thus preserved from a contingency, which it is difficult to guard against in the neighbouring districts. The whole jurisdiction of Furruckabad is within the Doab, except the police station of Kakutnow, which is on the east side of the Ganges, and adjoins the Oude territories. In 1813, according to the collector's returns, this zillah contained 1,805,383 cucha or small begas in cultivation, assessed to the revenue at 10,28,485 rupees, the whole of which was realized within three per cent.: the rate of assessment was consequently about nine annas per bega. Besides this, there were 297,350 begas fit for cultivation, and 1,046,704 waste.

Before the acquisition of the Doab

by the British, the small principality of Furruckabad was surrounded by the dominions of the nabob of Oude, to whom the Patan chief of Furruckabad was tributary. In 1801, by an arrangement made with the former, the tribute payable by the latter was transferred to the Company; and in 1802 the civil and military government of the country was assumed, making an allowance to the Furruckabad nabob of 1,80,000 rupees per annum. For many years preceding that event there had not existed, even nominally, any court for the cognizance of criminal acts, or the redress of civil wrongs, and the Patans of Furruckabad, always noted for their ferocity, were habituated by impunity to the commission of the greatest atrocities. Murders were so frequent that the inhabitants did not dare to venture out after sunset, and the workmen then employed at the military cantonments always retired to their houses during daylight. Forcible burglaries took place in the middle of the town, and murders were perpetrated in the streets, every man trusting to his own individual means of revenge and defence. Since that period of anarchy the bands of robbers have been extirpated, and owing to the increased security of property, the value of lands and houses have greatly risen. It would be easy to prove that the great mass of every part of India have reason to rejoice at coming under the British control; but the blessings to this small district, in particular, have been incalculable.

In the financial year 1220 (A.D. 1813-14) a five year's settlement of the land revenue was made, and the circumstances of the Furruckabad district appeared in a sufficient state of advancement to warrant the confirmation of the existing settlement in perpetuity, which the commissioners in the upper provinces strongly recommended: but the vice-president in council thought that more precise information was still required, to enable the government to form a mature judgment on so important a subject. By precise information was principally meant, the proportion which the cultivated part of the different estates bore to the uncultivated; exclusive of which, however, various other points appeared to require elucidation, such as the amount of gross produce which the cultivator should pay, whether in money or kind, to the zemindars; a clear definition of the sources from which the latter are entitled to draw a rent from the peasantry; also an accurate and well ascertained boundary of the different zemindaries; and finally to ascertain the general interests of the government and the community, in the several gradations from the Sudder Malgoozar to the actual tiller of the soil. Arrangements for ascertaining these being then in progress, it was deemed expedient to postpone the promulgation of a measure in its nature irrevocable, and involving so materially, not only the financial interests of the government, but also the welfare and prosperity of those living under its protection.—(*Public MS. Documents, Guthrie, the Marquis of Hastings, Lord Valentia, &c.*)

FURRUCKABAD.—A city in the province of Agra, the capital of the preceding district, and one of the principal towns of Upper Hindostan; lat. 27° 24′ N., lon. 79° 27′ E. It stands at a short distance from the west shore of the Ganges, and is only four miles distant from the king of Oude's reserved territories. The town is surrounded by a wall, which has been kept in tolerable order by the magistrates. Some of the streets are wide, many of the houses and open spots shaded by trees; but, except the principal streets, a great majority of the houses are mean erections of mud. By the police arrangements the city is divided into seven wards, which are again partitioned into 194 mohallahs, many of which are narrow, and appear at one time to have had barrier gates. The residence of the civil establishment is at Futtehghur, where government has also established a mint.

From an actual survey by the magistrates in 1811, it was ascertained that the town of Furruckabad contained 14,999 houses, of which number 13,348 were constantly occupied, the remaining 1,651 being shops, only inhabited during the day-time. Allowing five to a house, the total population would amount to 66,740, which must be considerably increased by the temporary sojourning of travellers and foreign merchants, this city being considered the chief commercial emporium in the conquered and ceded provinces, and the common resort of needy and dissolute characters from every quarter of Hindostan. One of the most brilliant achievements of the war of 1805 was the surprisal at this place by Lord Lake of Holcar's army, which thinned the numbers, and entirely broke the spirit of his cavalry. Travelling distance from Lucknow, 111 miles; and from Calcutta by Birboom, 755 miles.—(*Guthrie, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Rennell, &c.*)

FURRUCKNAGUR (*Furakhnagura, the happy city*).—A walled town with a large serai in the province of Delhi, district of Merut, ten miles E.N.E. from Delhi.

FURRUCKNAGUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-four miles west from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 30′ N., lon. 76° 31′ E.

FUTTEHGHUR (*Fataghar, the fort of victory*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Ganges, ninety miles N.W. from Lucknow, and three miles from Furruckabad; lat. 27° 21′ N., lon. 79° 30′ E. Since the extension of the British frontier towards the northwest, Futtehghur has gradually ceased to be a military station of importance, and the force cantoned here now seldom exceeds half a battalion of native infantry. It is, however, the head-quarters of the commissioners for the settlement of the ceded and conquered provinces, and of the civil authorities of the Furruckabad zillah, and also of several European merchants. The same predilection for mud walls prevailing here as at Cawnpoor, the dust here during the dry season is almost intolerable, and many of the unoccupied military buildings having fallen to decay, its aspect is still more dismal than that of its sister station. A small, but strong mud fort has been erected for the protection of the arsenal, and the cantonment possesses the most elegant private theatre, next to Calcutta, within the limits of the Bengal presidency. Among other branches of industry, Futtehghur nearly monopolizes the manufacture of tents, which are here fabricated of excellent materials and with superior workmanship. During the dry season the Ganges at this spot is reduced to one or two narrow streams, meandering their way through a waste of sand.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

FUTTEHABAD.—A district forming a part of the Nizam's dominions in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the eighteenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. The principal towns are Daroor (the capital), Cullum, and Latoor; the rivers, the Manjera (which traverses the district) and the Tierna.

FUTTEHABAD.—A town in the Bhatty country, in the province of Ajmeer, situated on the south bank of the Cuggur river, about thirty-five miles distance from Hansi, and thirty from Hissar; lat. 29° 30′ N. The road from Hansi is good, and plenty of water is procurable at all seasons. At this place there is a large brick fort, with high thin walls, strengthened on the inside with buttresses of earth, but without a ditch. There is a small ditch round the town, which is populous, and, as is usual in this quarter, most of the male inhabitants (in 1810 estimated at 2,000 persons) carry arms. The country from hence to Bat Summund is almost one continued jungle for thirty miles, affording excellent shelter for the Bhatty thieves, and according to the newspapers full of lions. Futtehabad is recorded as having been one of Timour's marches, at which period the

surrounding country must have been more productive, or it never could have furnished one day's subsistence for his innumerable hordes.—(*Archibald Seton, &c.*)

Futtehabad (*the abode of victory*).—A town in the province of Malwa, division of Oojein, thus named by Aurengzebe after a great battle gained here. In 1820 it belonged to Dowlet Row Sindia. Lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 75° 45′ E.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Futtehgunge (*Fatahganj*). — A walled town in the province of Oude, formerly the residence of Raja Tickait Roy, of whom the only memorial remaining is a fine tank, surrounded with ruined buildings, eight miles W.S.W. from Lucknow.

Futtehpoor.—A large town in the province of Allahabad, sixty-five miles south from Lucknow; lat. 25° 56′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. In 1824 this place had the appearance of considerable prosperity, and contained, besides several good houses, an elegant little mosque, recently built by the nephews of the celebrated eunuch, Almass Ali Khan.

Like most towns in this vicinity, Futtehpoor is surrounded with tombs, and on one side is a large ruinous serai. No payment is required at these serais except a few cowries to the sweeper, while for a small sum of money, grass and water will be furnished to the traveller's beasts of burthen, and fuel and earthen pots for himself. The buildings themselves are generally noble monuments of individual bounty, and in ancient times were liberally endowed, and furnished with supplies of grain, milk, grass, &c. gratis to the sojourner, as well as shelter. These foundations are now mostly alienated, and a large proportion ruinous; but it is said their restoration and support is one of the objects proposed by the British government, in the application of the internal tolls to works of public improvement.

Futtipoor Sikra.—A town in the province of Agra, about nineteen miles W.S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 6′ N., lon. 77° 34′ E. It is surrounded by a stone wall of great extent, with battlements and round towers, built by the Emperor Acber. The space within does not appear to have ever been filled up with buildings, and the portion now inhabited forms but an inconsiderable village. The neighbouring hills are composed of greyish stone, and have supplied the materials with which the town is built. On the most elevated part of the rock stands the tomb of Shah Selim Cheestee, a Mahomedan saint, by the efficacy of whose prayers Acber's empress, after remaining barren for several years, became pregnant and bore a son, who in honour of the holy man was named Selim, and on ascending the throne of Hindostan took the name of Jehangeer. The tomb is still to be seen in the centre of an arcaded square, surpassing in extent the area of the Jumma Musjeed at Delhi, and approached through a gate of singularly grand proportions. Several individuals of Acber's family lie interred within the precincts; and the spacious and tolerably entire remains of a palace, formerly inhabited by that emperor, are still in existence. The line of British frontier in this quarter commences at, and includes Futtipoor Sikra.

This town was a favourite residence of Acber, and here, during his expeditions, he usually left his wives and children. There are two tombs here of very elaborate workmanship; that to the right contains several monuments of the royal family; that to the left (a beautiful chapel of white marble) the shrine of Sheikh Soliman, who had the rare good fortune of being both a saint and statesman. It is kept in substantial repair by the British government, and its solid style makes this an easier task than the intricate and elaborate inlaid work of Secundra and the Tauje Mahal. There is a small but richly ornamented house still shown as having been the residence of Beerbull,

the emperor's favourite minister, and whom the Mussulmauns accuse of having infected him with the strange religious notions with which in the latter part of his life he sought to inoculate his subjects. Another little building is also shewn, consisting merely of a shrine or canopy supported by four pillars, where, according to the Mahomedans, Acber used to perform his magical rites.—(*Hunter, Fullarton, &c.*)

FUTTYPOOR (*Fatahpura*).—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eighty-five miles N.W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 27° 50′ N., lon. 74° 45′ E.

FUTTYPOOR.—A considerable town in the province of Gundwana, fifty-four miles S.W. from Husseinabad, and twenty-seven from Chowraghur; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. This place is the residence of a petty chief, tributary to the Raja of Nagpoor.

FUTWA.—A populous town in the province of Bahar, zillah of Bahar, situated at the confluence of the Pompon river with the Ganges, below the city of Patna. Here are two pagodas, and also a bridge over the Pompon.

FYZABAD (*a beautiful residence*).—A town in the province of Oude, and the capital of that principality during the reign of Shuja ud Dowlah, but in 1775 abandoned for Lucknow by his son and successor, Asoph ud Dowlah, situated on the south side of the Goggra river, seventy-eight miles east from Lucknow. This city is still of considerable extent, and contains a numerous population, chiefly of the lower classes; the great men, bankers, money-changers, and merchants, having migrated with the court to Lucknow. The remains of a fortress, and of Shuja ud Dowlah's palace, are still to be seen.

Latterly Fyzabad has been chiefly remarkable as the residence of the celebrated Bhow Begum, the widow of Shujah ud Dowlah, and mother of Asoph ud Dowlah, but not, as is generally supposed, of the late Nabob Saadet Ali. The original intention of this lady was to transfer the whole of her property, real and personal, to the British government, and to constitute that power sole heir and executor at her death. The just right of the Begum to transfer, and of the British government to accept, her highness's legacy, with reference to her personal property, could not be doubted; but the government immediately rejected the proposal, and recommended an arrangement by which, after providing for her own interment, and for her relations and dependants, the residue of her vast property should devolve to her grandson, Ghazi ud Deen, the present king of Oude.

The Bhow Begum departed this life on the 28th of December 1815, after an illness of a few days, aged eighty-four, and on the 19th of February 1816 Mr. Strachey (then resident at Lucknow) proceeded to Lucknow, to carry into effect the provisions of her will. The amount of her treasure (exaggerated by the natives to twenty crores and thirty-five lacks of rupees), according to the statements furnished by Dareb Ali Khan, who, in concert with Captain Robertson, commanding the guard at Fyzabad, had examined the coffers, was 89,48,916 rupees (£1,038,074 sterling), exclusive of jewels, shawl goods, wearing apparel, cattle, &c. &c. The last-mentioned description of property, together with the jaghires of the late Begum, which, even under her mismanagement, yielded eight lacks of rupees per annum (£92,800), was made over to the king of Oude, whose agent repaired to Fyzabad to take charge of it. The aggregate amount of pensions for which the British government became responsible required a capital of 50,11,470 rupees, to which sum three lacks, payable to Dareb Ali Khan for the expense of the mausoleum, and one lack for donations to the holy shrines of Kerbela and Nudjuff, were to be added. Other items swelled the total capital received by the British government for the purpose of executing the provisions of the Begum's will, to 62,50,748 rupees. The re-

mainder (after deducting the four lacks above specified) left in the hands of the British government to cover the pensions, &c. (about 3,50,000 rupees) to be paid to the Begum's relations and dependants, through her confidential eunuch, Dareb Ali Khan, amounted to 58,50,748 rupees (£678,606 sterling).

After all these deductions from the Begum's property, the nabob's residue amounted to 26,97,168 rupees in money, besides jewels and other valuables of which no estimate was made; and his excellency, as abovementioned, succeeded to an estate of eight lacks of rupees per annum. Subsequently a fraudulent attempt was made to pass off a surreptitious will, purporting to be that of the late Begum; but the forgery was detected, and measures were taken to discover and punish the contrivers of it.—(*Public MS. Documents, Major Baillie, &c.*)

Fyzabad.—A village in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, situated on the skirts of the great northern forest, near the eastern banks of the Jumna, where that river issues from the hills. A short distance above this place there are still to be seen the remains of a hunting seat, built close to the Jumna by the Mogul emperor Shah Jehan. The ruins are massy, but of no architectural beauty.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

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Gagroon.—A fortress in the province of Malwa, district of Kotah, and the usual residence of the late Zalim Singh, the raj rana, or regent of that principality; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 76° 12′ E., forty-nine miles S.E. from Kotah.

Gahrah.—A small town in the province of Mooltan, about twenty-four miles west from the city of Tatta; lat. 24° 46′ N., lon. 67° 56′ E. The surrounding country consists of a light salt sand, which during a fresh breeze rises in such clouds as almost to blind man and beast. A strong glare is also reflected in the day-time, and the wind is dry and excessively parching. A few lye shrubs are scattered over this torrid tract.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Galadzet Hills.—A range of hills in the kingdom of Ava, beginning at Tagourdine, forty miles east of Prome, approaching towards Tongho. A party of British troops in 1825 ascended these elevations, which were found so steep and rugged as to offer serious obstacles to the passage of an army. After passing them, the road was found to lead through a desert and dreary waste, having a few miserable cottages scattered over it, until within a day's march of Tongho, where the country again assumes a more civilized appearance.—(*Snodgrass, &c.*)

Galkot.—A territory of small extent in Northern Hindostan, and formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships. Although a cooler country than the valley of Nepaul, it is said to be the best cultivated in this quarter, partly with the hoe and partly with the plough; besides which it contains three mines of copper and one of iron. While one of the twenty-four independent rajaships, the chief's share of the revenue, including the mines, amounted to 3,500 rupees per annum. In 1806 the whole number of inhabitants were reckoned to occupy 3,000 houses; half low tribes of cultivators and tradesmen, one-fourth Khasiyas, and one-fourth Brahmins and Rajpoots. The chief's house, named Galkot, surrounded by about 500 huts, stands on a hill, in lat. 28° 17′ N., lon. 83° 14′ E., seventy-six miles W.N.W. from Gorkha.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Gandhauk (*or Gantoo*).—A strong-hold in Northern Hindostan, belonging to the Sikkim raja, situated between the great and little Teesta, about thirty miles N. from Delamcotta; lat. 27° 26′ N., lon. 88° 38′ E. This place, and the small territory

attached, were never subdued by the Gorkhas.

Gandapoor.—(*Gandhapura, the fragrant town*).—A town or rather village in the province of Aurungabad, sixty-two miles north from Ahmednuggur; lat. 19° 54′ N., lon. 75° 11′ E. It is now the frontier village of the British possessions in this quarter, formed of conquests from the Peshwa. A noble avenue of tamarind and neem trees extends from hence to the left bank of the Godavery, opposite to Toka.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Gandicotta (*or Ganjicotta*).—A subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded territories, situated about the fifteenth degree of north latitude. It is intersected by the Pennar river, which penetrates through a gap in the Gandicotta hills into the plain of Cuddapah. The break or chasm in these mountains appears to have resulted from some violent concussion of nature, as it is very narrow, and the opposite sides almost perpendicular. On the southern precipice is the fort of Gandicotta, which has communicated its name to a range of hills, of a barren aspect, and almost destitute of trees. The town and fort of Gandicotta are situated in lat. 14° 51′ N., lon. 78° 22′ E., forty-three miles N.W. from Cuddapah. It is not at present a place of any importance, although formerly noted for its strength, and the vicinity of a diamond mine. In the immediate neighbourhood the waters of the Pennar are abstracted for the purposes of irrigation, being conducted to the fields by channels cut in various directions.—(*Heyne, Rennell, &c.*)

Ganges River.—The Bhagirathi, or true Ganges, issues (about lat. 31° N., lon. 79° E.) from under a very low arch, at the base of a great mass of solid frozen snow, about 300 feet perpendicular height, composed of layers, each several feet thick, and probably the accumulation of ages. From the brow of this snow wall large and hoary icicles depend, whence may have originated the mythological fable of the Ganges issuing from the hair of Mahadeva. The height of the snow arch is only sufficient to let the river flow under it. The mean breadth of the stream, where it issues, on the 31st of May 1808 was twenty-seven feet, and the mean depth about twelve inches; such is the diminutive apparition of the young goddess who ultimately rolls a flood into the ocean ten miles broad.

There does not appear to be any practicable route by the course of the Ganges, as there is by the Jahnevi, otherwise the natives would probably, before this date, have found it out. This tract, however, has not yet been explored by Europeans during the rains, when it is probable the mass of snow would be found much reduced. But certainly the Dauli, and not the Bhagirathi, ought to be considered the main stream of the Ganges: for the Dauli proceeds from the very base of the highest ridge of the enormous Himalaya chain, and one of its tributaries issues from the pass which leads through the mountains; whereas the Alacananda (the next longest branch), in the inferior, short of the snowy mountains. It is probable that there are not any boiling under the mass of snow here, as at the source of the Jumna, no steam being perceptible. The termination of Capt. Hodgson's route, one mile and a half further up than the spot where the Ganges emerges, was found to be 14,600 feet above the level of the sea; but the point above-mentioned, where it first becomes visible, is only 13,800 feet.

From Gangautri the Ganges has the upper part of its course among the mountains, flowing from the south of east to the north of west; and it is only from Sukhi, where it fairly pierces through the Himalaya, that it assumes a course of about south 20° west to Hurdwar, whence it enters the plains, and from thence to its confluence with the Jumna at Allahabad (the first large river that joins it in Upper Hindostan), the bed of the Ganges is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter wide. From hence

its course becomes more winding and its channel broader, until having successively received the Goggra, the Sone, and Gunduck, besides smaller streams, its current attains its greatest width inland, as it afterwards becomes so narrow in some parts as half a mile, and, where no islands interpose, occasionally spreads to three miles; when at its lowest the principal channel varies from 400 yards to one mile and a quarter wide, but is commonly about three-fourths of a mile wide.

The Ganges is fordable at some places above its conflux with the *Jumna*, but the navigation is never interrupted. At 500 miles from the sea the channel is thirty feet deep when the river is at its lowest, which depth continues to the sea, where the sudden expansion of the stream deprives it of the force necessary to sweep away the bars of mud and sand, thrown across it by the strong southerly winds, so that the principal branch of the Ganges cannot be entered by large vessels.

About 200 miles from the sea, but much more reckoning the windings of the river, the Delta of the Ganges commences. The two westernmost branches, named the Cossimbazar and Jellinghy rivers, unite, and form what is afterwards named the Hooghly, flowing past Calcutta, and the only branch navigated by ships. Below the channel named the Sangti Mohana, where the Ganges sends off these two branches, which go to Calcutta, the main trunk loses not only its name, but a large proportion of its sanctity. The Cossimbazar river is almost dry from October to May; the Jellinghy, although a stream runs in it at all seasons, is in some years unnavigable for two or three of the driest months; so that the only secondary branch of the Ganges that is at all times navigable for boats, is the Chandna river, which separates at Mofapoor, and terminates in the Hooringotta. That part of the Delta bordering on the sea consists of a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, named the Sunderbunds, which, including the rivers that bound it, give an expansion of 200 miles to the branches of the Ganges at their junction with the sea.

The descent of this river is about nine inches per mile, but the windings are so great as to reduce the declivity to less than four inches per mile. In the dry season the mean rate of motion is less than three miles per hour, but in the wet season, and while the waters are draining off the inundated lands, the current runs from five to six miles an hour, and there are instances of its running from seven to eight in particular situations.

The Ganges owes part of its increase to the rains that fall in the mountains, although it does not appear to be much affected by the melting of the snow in spring. The sum total of its rising is thirty-two feet, out of which it rises fifteen feet and a half by the latter end of June, and the rainy season does not seriously begin in most of the flat countries until about that time. In the mountains the rains commence early in April, and by the end of that month, when the rain-water has reached Bengal, the rivers begin to rise by very slow degrees, the increase being only one inch per day for the first fortnight. It then gradually augments to two and three inches, before any quantity of rain has fallen in the low countries; and when the rain becomes general, its increase at a medium is five inches per day. By the end of July, all the flat country of Bengal contiguous to the Ganges and Brahmaputra are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than 100 miles in breadth, nothing appearing but villages and trees, and here and there the artificial site of an abandoned village resembling an island.

Owing to the quantity of rain that falls in Bengal, the lands in general are overflowed to a considerable height long before the bed of the river is filled, the ground adjacent to the river bank, to the extent of some miles, being higher than the rest of the country. Particular tracts are

guarded from inundation by dykes or bunds, kept up at an enormous expense, the permanent utility of which has recently been much doubted, for the country must be irrigated at some period, when it becomes necessary to cut the bunds. From their long duration, also, they have had the effect of elevating the beds of the rivers they confine to a greater height than they would naturally have attained; in some instances greatly exceeding the level of the adjacent fields. The whole neighbourhood has in consequence been brought into so artificial a state, that no alternative remains but perseverance in the same erroneous and expensive system. It has been estimated that the total length of these dykes, collectively, exceeds 1,000 miles.

Table of the increase of the Ganges and its branches.

	Jellingby.		Dacca.	
Rise in May	6ft.	0in.	2ft.	4in.
Do. June	9	6 ...	4	6
Do. July	12	6 ...	5	6
First half of August	4	0 ...	1	11
Total ...	32	0	14	3

The inundation is nearly at a stand in Bengal for some days preceding the 15th of August, when it begins to run off, although great quantities of rain continue to fall during August and September; but a decrease of rain has by this time taken place in the north, and a consequent deficiency in the supply to keep up the inundation. The daily decrease of the Ganges in the latter half of August and the whole of September is from three to four inches; from September to the end of November it gradually lessens from three to one inches, and from November to the end of April is only half an inch per day at a medium.

Approaching the sea from the limit to which the tide reaches, the height of the periodical increase gradually diminishes, until it totally disappears at the point of contact with the sea. The ocean preserving at all times the same level, necessarily influences that of the waters which communicate with it. At Luckipoor there is a difference of about six feet between the heights at different seasons; at Dacca and places adjacent fourteen feet; and at Custee thirty-one feet. The latter place is about 240 miles from the sea by the course of the river; and the surface of the river there, during the dry season, is eighty feet above the level of the sea at high water

In Bengal, the banks of the Ganges exhibit a variety of appearances, according to the nature of the soil, or the degree of force with which the current strikes against them. In those parts where the velocity of the stream is greatest, and the soil extremely loose, the banks become perpendicular, and are undermined and swept away by the strength of the current with such rapidity, that an acre of ground has been seen to disappear in less than half an hour. At other spots the bank is seen excavated into deep bays with projecting points between them, round which the current rushes with great velocity; but it is considerably slackened, and has even a retrograde eddying motion, in the interior part of the gulf. In the upper districts, where a conker soil (a hard white calcareous earth) prevails, the banks are not so liable to be undermined, and the Rajmahal hills, from which several rocky points (as at Sicrygully, Pointy, and Pattergotta) have for ages effectually resisted the encroachments of the Ganges.

In its course through the plains the Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, none smaller than the Thames, besides a great many others of lesser note. The largest tributary streams to the Ganges in Bengal and Bahar, are the Goggra, the Sone, and the Cosa. Such of these rivers as are narrowest, are remarkable for their windings; the larger rivers having a tendency to run in more direct lines. Within the space of 100 miles, the Ganges by the winding of its course is calculated to increase the space

gone over to 125 miles, some other rivers more than double it.

It is only that portion of the river that lies in the most direct line from Gangoutri, near to which its feeble stream issues from the Himalaya, to Sagor island, below Calcutta, that it is particularly sacred, and named the Ganga or Bhagirathi. The Hooghly river, therefore, of European geographers, is considered the true Ganges; the great branch that runs east to join the Brahmaputra, is by the Hindoos named the Puddah (Padma or Padmawati), and is not by them esteemed equally sacred. Although the waters of the whole river from Gangoutri to Sagor is holy, yet there are places more eminently sacred than the rest, and to these pilgrims from a distance resort to perform their ablutions, and carry off water to be used in future ceremonies. Wherever this river runs from the south to the north, contrary to the usual direction, it is considered peculiarly holy, and is called Uttara Bahini.

The most sanctified places are certain prayagas, or confluences of rivers, of which Allahabad, where the Ganges and Jumna unite, is esteemed the chief, and by way of distinction named Prayag. Some others are situated in Northern Hindostan, in the province of Gurwal, at the junction of the Alacananda with other streams, and are named Devaprayaga, Rudraprayaga, Carnaprayaga, and Nandaprayaga. The remaining sacred spots are Hurdwar, where the river first escapes from the mountains; Uttara Janagiri, a short distance below Monghir; and Sagor island at the mouth of the Hooghly. Besides its sanctity, the Ganges water is much esteemed for its medicinal properties, and is on this account drank by many Mahomedans. In 1792 Abdul Hakeem, the reigning nabob of Shahnoor, near the west coast of India, and above a thousand miles travelling distance, although a Mahomedan, never drank any thing else.

In the British courts of justice under the Bengal presidency the Ganges water is used to swear witnesses of the Brahminical faith, in the same manner as the Evangelists are put into the hands of Christians, and the Koran into those of the Mahomedans; but many respectable Hindoos refuse to comply with the ceremony, alleging, that on such occasions, it is forbidden to touch the Ganges water, a Salgram, or a Brahmin. When such cases occur, if the person be of good character, the judges permit him to give his evidence in the way most consistent with his prejudices.

In the Hindoo mythology, Ganga (the Ganges) is described as the daughter of the great mountain Himavati; her sister Ooma, as the spouse of Mahadeva, the destroying power.

She is called Ganga on account of her flowing through Gang, the earth; she is called Jahnavi, from a choleric Hindoo saint, whose devotions she interrupted on her passage to the sea, when in a paroxysm of anger he drank her up, but was afterwards induced by the humble supplication of the demi-gods to discharge by his ears. She is called Bhagirathi, from the royal devotee Bhagaratha, who by the intensity and austerity of his devotions brought her from heaven to earth, from whence she proceeded to the infernal regions, to re-animate the ashes of his ancestors. And lastly, she is called Triputhaga, on account of her proceeding forward in three different directions, watering the three worlds, heaven, earth, and the infernal regions, and filling the ocean, which according to the Brahminical mythology, although excavated before her appearance, was destitute of water.—(*Rennell, Colebrooke, Colonel Colebrooke, Hodgson and Herbert, Webb, Raper, the Moonshee, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, the Ramayuna, Ward, &c.*)

GANGPOOR.—A small chiefship in the province of Gundwana, formerly a dependent pergunnah on Sumbhulpoor, and latterly a feudatory of the British government. The town of Gangpoor stands in lat. 21° 54′ N.,

lon. 84° 30′ E., seventy-eight miles N. E. from Sumbhulpoor.

When taken possession of by Major Roughsedge in 1818, this zemindary was found in so complete a state of desolation, that in his triennial settlement of the revenue it was only assessed at 1,250 Sumbhulpoor rupees, or about 800 siccas. Many streams and rivers flow through Gangpoor from the hills of Chuta Nagpoor, on their road to the province of Cuttack, and valley of the Mahanuddy. In the channels of these, considerable quantities of gold are found, and occasionally diamonds of considerable magnitude, but the pestilential climate of this most wretched district, deters the boldest European from attempting a regular search for these much-prized productions. The zemindar's name in 1819, was Raja Indra Sicca Deo.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Gangoutri (*Ganga avatari*).—A celebrated place of pilgrimage in Northern Hindostan, situated among the Himalaya mountains, near to which the river Ganges issues into day from under an immense mound of snow; lat. 30° 59′ N., lon. 78° 56′ E., sixty-two miles north by east from Serinagur, 10,073 feet above the level of the sea. The temple here is merely a mundap of stone of a diminutive size, but it contains small statues of Bhagiratha, Ganga, and other local deities. It stands on a piece of rock, about twenty feet higher than the bed of the Ganges, and at a little distance there is a rough wooden building to shelter travellers. By the river side there is a little soil where small cedars grow, but in general the margin is strewed with masses of rock. On the 26th May 1808 the mean breadth of the Ganges at Gangoutri was forty-three feet; depth eighteen inches; on the 2d June the depth was two feet and rapidly increasing. The river has here an expanded bed and runs with a less furious current than immediately above and below.

There is no village here but merely a few sheds for the attendant Brahmins, who reside here during the pilgrim season, but notwithstanding the great efficacy attributed to this pilgrimage, it is but very little frequented. It was first visited by Captain Raper's moonshee (whose name has not been recorded) in 1808; by Mr. Fraser in 1815; and by Messrs. Hodgson and Herbert in 1817.

By the natives the pilgrimage to Gangoutri is reckoned a great exertion of Hindoo devotion, the accomplishment of which is supposed to redeem the performer from many troubles in this world, and ensure a happy transit through all the stages of transmigration which he may have to undergo. The water taken from hence is drawn under the inspection of a Brahmin, to whom a trifling sum is paid for the privilege of taking it, and much of it is offered up by, or on the part of the pilgrim at the temple of Baidyanath in Bengal. The specific gravity of this river is said to exceed that of its neighbour the Alacananda, according to Hindoo belief, and is so pure as neither to evaporate, or become corrupted by being kept and transported to distant places.—(*Captain Hodgson, Herbert, Raper, &c.*)

Ganjam (*Ganjam, the depôt*).—This district occupies the northernmost portion of the five Circars, and has a very extensive line of sea-coast. To the north it borders on the district of Cuttack, which is subordinate to the Bengal presidency; to the south on that of Vizagapatam; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west a barbarous and unexplored tract of the Orissa province. The interior of this zillah, as also the names and relative distances of the towns and villages, are still very ill delineated in the best modern maps and require revision. The western portion of Ganjam is hilly, but not far from the shore there are large and fertile plains, this being on the whole one of the most productive under the Madras presidency. The climate is also more salubrious than some of the southern Circars, the land winds being comparatively little felt, but it

has, notwithstanding been occasionally, especially in 1815, experienced the ravages of a pelestilential fever which apparently visited in succession every part of Hindostan.

The rice cultivation throughout Ganjam is very considerable, interrupted, however, by extensive tracts of bamboo and thora jungle. One great forest in particular, composed principally of bamboo clumps; covers the plain for a space of eight or ten miles. Cotton is not generally raised here, but only in detached spots. The same ground that produces cotton one year will not answer that crop the succeedyear, but with encouragement the cultivation might be extended and improved. The architecture of the Hindoo religious edifices in this quarter of India is peculiar. Each temple is composed of a groupe of rather low buildings, in some cases detached in others joined, each with a graduated pyramidical roof, terminating in an ornamented conical cupola. Juggernauth is the favourite object of worship. The principal towns for the coasting trade are Ganjam, Munsoorcotta, Soonapoor, Calingapatam, and Burhampoor, which in 1820 was the head-quarters of the civil establishment. The exports consist of cotton, cotton-cloth, rice, sugar, rum, pulses of all kinds, gums, drugs and other hill produce, wax, ghee, and salt to Bengal. In 1817, the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 312,956 star pagodas. Ganjam escaped the Pindary invasion which in 1816 desolated Guntoor; but in the following year had a visit from these depredators, who although expelled in the short space of eleven days, committed ravages and left an impression of terror on the minds of the inhabitants scarcely inferior to what had been experienced in Guntoor.—(*J. Grant, Hodgson, Fullarton, &c.*)

GANJAM.—A town in the northern Circars, the former capital of the preceding district, situated near the sea coast in the bay of Bengal; lat. 19° 21′ N., lon. 85° 10′ E. It stands on an elevated portion of the plain, with a range of high mountains at the distance of a few miles in the back ground. The public buildings of this station, as well as the houses and gardens of the civilians, were on a scale of grandeur surpassing almost every other station under the Madras presidency; but in 1820, these and the fort and cantonments were going rapidly to decay. At that date an old invalid sergeant in charge of the fort, was the last remaining white inhabitant, even the master attendant having taken flight to Munsoorcotta. The native quarter of the town was rather less desolate, half the houses being still inhabited. Meanwhile the fever, which had caused this general dispersion, and which had its origin (as was supposed) in a great flooding of the low country from a violent storm, had altogether ceased, and Ganjam was again considered more healthy than even the neighbouring station of Vizagapatam. Such are the vicissitudes of a tropical climate. The principal arm of the Ganjam river which enters the sea to the south of the town is about one third of a mile broad, and is fordable at most seasons of the year. Another narrower but deeper branch is crossed on a wooden bridge, built somewhat on the principle of the Sangan of the Himalaya mountains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

GANORAH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, the capital of a tract named Godwar, which three reigns back belonged to Odeypoor.—(*MS., &c.*)

GARAHANG.—A petty state in Northern Hindostan, formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships, and now tributary to Nepaul. The chief's castle built of brick, and surrounded by about seventy huts, stands on the top of a hill in lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 83° 35′ E., eighty miles west of Catmandoo.

GAREWDUN.—See GURDON.

GARIADHAR.—A town in the Gujerat Peninsula, forty-four miles west

from the gulf of Cambay; lat. 21. 30′ N., lon. 71° 41′ E.

Garilwara.—A town in the province of Gundwana, the head of a pergunnah of the same name belonging to the British government, sixteen miles S. W. of Sacur and twenty-four miles N. E. of Chowraghur. Lat. 22° 49′ N., lon. 79° 15′ E. — (*Malcolm, &c.*)

Garrows (*Garudas*).—This tribe formerly occupied an extensive tract of country between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude; bounded on the north by the course of the Brahmaputra, on the south by the districts of Silhet and Mymunsingh, to the east by Assam and Gentiah, and on the west by a bend of the Brahmaputra. Such were the ancient dimensions, which, besides the country still retained by the independent Garrows, comprehended the territorial divisions in modern maps named Howeraghaut, Measpara (or Mechpara), Caloomaloopara, Currybarry, Gonasser Susung, and Sheerpoor, in Mymunsingh At present the tract occupied by the independent Garrows cannot be estimated at more than 130 miles in length by thirty in breadth, and nowhere touches the Brahmaputra. Seen from the confines, the whole appears to be a confused assemblage of hills, from 100 to 3,000 feet high, watered by numerous small streams, and containing scarcely any level ground, the hills being every where immediately contiguous to each other Towards the centre it is said (for they have only been recently penetrated by Europeans) there are immense masses of naked rock, and large spaces destitute of vegetation; but in general the hills, though steep, consist of a rich deep soil, suitable for the hoe cultivation. The climate being very humid, such a soil produces a most exuberant vegetation, and where undisturbed by agriculture, the mountains are covered with noble forests, containing an infinite variety of curious and ornamental plants

In geological structure the Garrow mountains are of two orders. The first rise to the height of two or three thousand feet, and in some parts more; are composed of granite, with veins of unmixed quartz beneath, and of pure white felspar towards the summits. The hills of the second order are seldom above 200 feet high, and appear to have been formed by the operation of water, the strata being nearly horizontal, and their substance composed of clay, sand, and small stones. In some places, on a mountain above 4,000 feet high, north of Robagiri, ridges of gneiss appear, more especially at the top, in a position nearly vertical. At Robagiri, above the white clay, a stratum of limestone, abounding in nummulites, appears in the bed of the river.

Besides the space above-mentioned, the Garrows seem formerly to have occupied much of the adjacent low country, and still retain some portions as subjects of the neighbouring powers, most of the rajas tributary to Assam on the south side of the Brahmaputra being of the Garrow tribe On the British frontier the several large estates adjoining to the Brahmaputra on the east have never, under any government, been regularly surveyed, nor have their internal resources until very lately been the object of official scrutiny. During the Mogul government some of them were made liable to a provision of elephants, some to certain assignments towards defraying the expenses of the Dacca artillery park, and others to the maintenance of a few petty garrisons, but the internal administration was left almost entirely to the hereditary chiefs found in possession of the principalities, who were treated rather as tributaries than subjects. This arrangement probably originated partly from the wild and uncultivated state of the country, which did not admit of a regular assessment, and partly from an adherence to a favourite maxim of Mogul policy, that of conciliating the good-will of chiefs possessing local influence on their distant frontiers.

Whatever share of independence the Garrows may have retained during the sway of the Moguls, whose cavalry could not penetrate these impervious forests, they soon lost when the adjacent zemindars of Bengal could call to their assistance the terrors of British musquetry, against which the bows, swords, and spears of the Garrows could oppose but a feeble resistance. In A.D. 1775 the chowdries of Measpara and Currybarry, under pretence of incursions made by the Garrows, collected a considerable body of armed men and invaded the hills, where they are said to have continued for two or three years, during which period great numbers of their followers are said to have fallen victims to the unhealthiness of the climate. They eventually, however, succeeded in subduing several tribes, and it is asserted that on this occasion the hill chief Rungta first became subject to the authority of Currybarry. In 1794, Currybarry, Caloomaloopara, and Measpara, were considered by the commissioner in Cooch Bahar to be three istimrary mahals (lands paying rents in perpetuity), the assessments on which were fixed at a low rate on condition of their opposing the Garrow mountaineers, for it appears these tribes were in the habit of making annual plundering incursions, similar to those committed on the south-west frontier by the Maharattas. The chowdries of the above three estates had military rank conferred on them, and paid revenue for duties levied, but not for land; neither did the tenants pay any rent, except for a few tracts within the inundation of the Brahmaputra, holding their lands by military tenure. These feudal arrangements enabled the chiefs to organize such a force, that in 1789 Ram Ram, the chowdry of Measpara, attacked and defeated Mr Baillie, a merchant then residing at Goalpara, on the frontiers of Assam, but who it appears had also an army of his own. In process of time, when the connexion of the Garrow chiefs with the Mogul government of Bengal became more matured, they began to pay a trifling revenue in cotton, the staple production of their hills; every load brought to market by these mountaineers being accompanied by a small bundle named the bucha or young load, for the zemindar's share. The main load was carried on the back, in a long basket slung round the forehead, while the young load was carried in one hand, and the cumburee, or long sword, in the other.

In 1798 the repeated acts of contumacy on the part of the Currybarry zemindar, induced the government to detach a party against him, under the command of Capt. Darrah, who captured the fortified residence of the chowdry, in consequence of which he paid up the arrears. This was the first time that a regular British force had been sent to Currybarry. The affairs of the zemindar falling subsequently into disorder, the estate was brought to sale and the purchaser ruined, not being able to resell an estate the extent of which was undefined, and the owner subjected to continual alarms of conflagration and massacre, from the struggles of the western Garrows to shake off a yoke which they had long born with impatience. Rungta, one of their principal leaders, died many years ago, and was succeeded by his son Agund, who was alive in 1813, and was then said to possess much wealth in slaves, brass pots, and human skulls. This chief attended the marriage of the zemindar of Currybarry's son, when a palanquin was presented to him, which, having first deprived it of the poles as useless, he entered, and was borne away over the hills on the head of his slaves. His family establishment was said to be so numerous as to require five dhenkies (machines to clean rice) to be constantly kept at work. Agund's influence prevailed over that portion of the Garrow mountains which lie contiguous to Currybarry and Mymunsingh, and under him are gheeries and bhoomeas (local chiefs) who exercise authority over the particular villages in which they reside.

The Garrows have no other means of disposing of their cotton than by carrying it to the Bengalese markets, which they continue to do notwithstanding the constant succession of fraud, falsehood, and extortion which they there experience. The trade with Rungpoor is entirely carried on at these foreign marts, to which in ordinary times the Garrows repair once a week during the dry season, more especially in the months of December, January and February. When the Garrow arrives at the market, the zemindar commences by taking part of the cotton as his share; the remainder is exchanged for salt, cattle, hogs, goats, dogs, cats, ducks, fowls, fish dry and fresh, tortoises, rice, extract of sugar-cane for eating; tobacco and betel-nut for chewing; some hoes, spinning wheels, brass-ware, Monohari ornaments, and also some silk, erendi, and cotton cloths. In 1809 there were 47,000 maunds of cotton brought into the Rungpoor district by the Garrows, but of this 10,000 maunds came from Currybarry, and 700 from the Garrows of Assam. It is uncertain what quantity went to the southern markets, but were the Garrows sure of a reasonable recompense, the quantity might be greatly augmented. By a reasonable exchange is meant their receiving a maund of good salt for two maunds of cotton, whereas what they now receive is adulterated with a mixture of earth and addition of moisture. The value of the cotton, however, far exceeds the amount of all the other goods, and a large balance is paid in rupees, which is the only coin the Garrows will accept; the best eagle-wood is found among the Garrow hills, but hitherto little has been procured.

The presence of an armed establishment is indispensable, to keep the peace while the traffic is going on, and to give confidence to the sly but timid Bengalese. It was formerly the custom to keep a large body of matchlock-men with matches ready lighted, who paraded round the market during the sale, and discharged a matchlock at short intervals, to remind the savages that they were on the alert. Without this coercion, the Garrows, on the least dispute between one of their party and a merchant, would rise in arms and massacre all within their reach. Notwithstanding these precautions, the Garrows continued to perpetrate such atrocities, that in 1815 all commercial intercourse was interdicted, and parties of police peons stationed at the different marts in the vicinity of their mountains to enforce the prohibition.

With respect to the term Garrow, that people assert that it is a Bengalese denomination; nor does it appear that either nation have any general name for the congeries of elevations which we call the Garrow mountains, nor for their inhabitants collectively, each tribe or clan having a name peculiar to itself. The northern Garrows are a short, strong-limbed, active people, with strongly-marked Chinese countenances, and, in general, harsh features, but some of their chiefs are rather handsome, and in manners and vivacity are said greatly to excel the adjacent Bengalese zemindars. A Garrow woman can carry over the hills as great a load as a Bengalese man can carry over the plain, and a Garrow man one-third more. For their own eating, the Garrows rear cattle, goats, swine, dogs, cats, fowls, and ducks, and purchase from the inhabitants of the low countries all these animals, besides tortoises and fish, fresh and dried. Among the hills they procure deer, wild hogs, frogs, and snakes, all of which they eat, rejecting no food but milk, which they utterly abhor and abominate in any shape whatever, comparing it by way of execration to diseased matter. They are very partial to puppies, and the mode of cooking them is worthy of notice, as furnishing an example of their diabolical cruelty. They first incite the dog to eat as much rice as he can swallow, after which they tie his four legs together and throw him alive on the fire; when they consider the body to be

sufficiently roasted, they take it out, rip up the belly, and divide the rice in equal shares among the party assembled. The whole of this process has been repeatedly witnessed by the Bengalese traders at the cotton marts.

One more instance of their culinary operations will probably suffice. When a quarrel arises between two Garrows, the weaker party flies to a distant hill to elude the vengeance of his antagonist; but both parties immediately plant a tree bearing a sour fruit, called chatakor, and make a solemn vow that they will avail themselves of the earliest opportunity that presents itself, of eating their adversary's head with the juice of the fruit. A generation sometimes passes away without either party being able to execute the measure in contemplation, in which case the feud descends as an heirloom to the children. The party that eventually succeeds, having cut off the head of his slain adversary, summons all his friends, and boils the head along with the fruit of the tree, eats of the soup himself, and distributes the rest among his friends; the tree is then cut down, and the feud ends.

Their vegetable diet consists chiefly of rice and millet, with many arums, caladiums, and dioscoreas. For seasoning they have capsicums, onions, and garlic, but they do not use turmeric. In their cookery they employ both salt and ashes, and sometimes oil, but they cultivate no plant that produces the latter. They prepare a fermented liquor both from rice and millet, which is not distilled, but drank to excess both by men and women, on which occasions they usually squabble and fight. Many of them prefer wine to brandy, which is seldom done by a Hindoo toper, or by savage nations generally.

A process somewhat different is followed when they manage to assassinate any Bengalese zemindar. On these occasions great numbers of relations and neighbours are collected round the reeking heads brought back as trophies, which being filled with liquor and food, the Garrows dance round them, singing songs of triumph. After thus rejoicing, the heads are buried for the purpose of rotting off the flesh, and when arrived at a proper stage of putrefaction are dug up, cleansed of their filth, sung and danced round as before, and then suspended in the houses of the perpetrators of the massacre. It is a mistaken notion that it is a mere abstract fondness for human skulls that instigates the mountaineers to these atrocities: were that the motive, the skulls of persons dying a natural death would likewise be in demand, which is not the fact. It may consequently be admitted that it is the mode of acquisition by battle, surprise, or ambuscade, that stamps, in the opinion of the Garrows, the value of a Bengalese cranium, which is besides esteemed in proportion to the rank of its former possessor. In 1815 the skull of a Hindoo factor, who during his life-time had purchased the zemindary of Caloomaloopara, was valued at 1,000 rupees; and that of Indra Talookdar, agent to the Currybarry zemindar, at 500 rupees, while the price of a common peasant's was only from ten to twelve rupees of deficient weight. To this custom of hoarding skulls, and of making them the circulating medium in large payments, is to be attributed the extreme care with which the Garrows burn to powder the entire bodies of their own people, lest by any accident the skull of a Garrow should be passed off as that of a Bengalese.

These domestic feuds would be immortal if there were not in most tribes a council of chiefs and headmen, who endeavour to reconcile all those of the clan who have disputes, for it is said they have no right to inflict any punishment unless a man be detected in uttering a falsehood before them. The havoc such a regulation would occasion, were it extended to their Bengalese neighbours, will be duly appreciated by the European functionaries who administer justice in that land of mendacity. Among the Garrows dishonesty and stealing are not frequent; but murder is a

crime of ordinary occurrence, a Garrow man never being seen without his sword. With this he carves his meat and cuts his way through the forest; and so fond are they of the weapon, or aware of its utility for defence, that they never part with it, even when loaded with the heaviest burthens. Their habits of intoxication also occasion frequent crimes. Poor persons get drunk once a month, the chiefs once every two or three days, on which occurrences they squabble, fight, and assassinate.

With respect to religion, the unconverted Garrows of the hills believe in the transmigration of souls as a state of reward and punishment. Sall Jung is their supreme god, who has a wife named Manim; but they have no images or temples. In front of each house a dry bamboo with its branches adhering is fixed in the ground, before which, after having adorned it with tufts of cotton, thread, and flowers, they make their offerings. In science they have not advanced so far as to be able to write their own language; but a few on the frontier have learned to write the Bengalese; and although so much cotton is produced in their country, it is only recently that they have begun to practice the art of weaving it.

The particulars above detailed have reference principally to the northern Garrows, between whom and the southern there appears to be no essential difference, except that the latter seem to have undergone a partial conversion to the Brahminical doctrines. The southern Garrows are stout, well-shaped men, hardy, and able to do much work. They have a surly look, a flat Caffry nose, small eyes, wrinkled forehead, and overhanging eye-brows, with a large mouth, thick lips, and round face. Their colour is of a light or deep brown. The women are extremely short and squat in their stature, with masculine features, and almost masculine strength. In their ears a number of brass rings are fixed, sometimes as many as thirty, increasing in diameter from three to six inches. The females work at all the most laborious occupations. Their food is the same as that of the northern tribes, but their houses seem of a superior description: these are named chaungs, and are raised on piles three and four feet from the ground, being in length from 30 to 150 feet, by from ten to forty in breadth. The props of the house consist of large saul timbers, over which other large timbers are placed horizontally, and the roofs are finished with bamboos, mats, and strong grass. The latter are uncommonly well executed, especially in the houses of the bhoomeas or chief men. This dwelling consists of two apartments: one floored and raised on piles; the other for their cattle, without a floor, at one end. The chiefs wear silk turbans, but their apparel is generally covered with bugs.

These Garrows are said to be of a mild temper and gay disposition, and very fond of dancing. In regulating these, twenty or thirty men stand behind each other, holding by the sides of their belts, and then go round in circle, hopping first on one foot, after which they hop on the other. The women dance in rows, and hop in the like manner. During their festivals they eat and drink to such an excess, that they require a day or two to get properly sober. Marriage is generally settled by the parties interested, but sometimes by the parents. If the latter do not readily accede to the wishes of their child, they are well beaten by the friends of the other party, and even by persons unconnected with either, until they acquiese, and the drubbing is rarely ineffectual. Among this people the youngest daughter is always the heiress; and the females generally, although they work hard, have great privileges, and in their debates have quite as much to say as the men. If her husband dies the wife marries one of his brothers, and if they all die she marries their father. The dead are kept four days and then burned. If the chief be a highland chief of common rank, the head of one of his slaves should be burned

with him; but if he be a chief of great dignity, a large body of his slaves sally out from the hills and seize a Hindoo, whose head they cut off, and burn along with the body of their chieftain. The customs of the Hajin tribe, who reside at the foot of the Garrow mountains, partake more of the Hindoo, as they will not kill a cow, but they worship the tiger.

Such are the people whom a strange concurrence of circumstances has brought in contact with the British nation; and where the two extremes of civilization and the want of it meet, the last is sure to succumb. As yet, however, they are an independent community: even the British, as successors to the Moguls, having no claims on their lands, far less any zemindar under that government. The country from which they have been driven by the Bengulese of Caloomaloopara and Mechpara, continues waste, and will probably remain so until the grievances of the Garrows are redressed, and their incursions restrained. In 1815, Mr. Sisson recommended that an intelligent native of rank, with one or more deputies, should be appointed to the superintendance of the whole range of Garrow hills, and to give efficiency to his office, that a small corps, consisting exclusively of Nuchies, Coochies, Hajins, Rajbungsies, and other aboriginals, should be placed under him.—(*Sisson, F. Buchanan, D. Scott, Elliott, &c.*)

GAUKARNA.—A town on the sea-coast of the province of Canara, twenty-one miles N. by W. from Onore; lat. 14° 32′ N., lon. 75° 25′ E. This place is very much scattered among cocoa-nut palms, and contains about 500 houses, of which one-half are occupied by Brahmins, who esteem Gaukarna on account of an image of Siva named Mahaboliswara. About six miles north from hence is Gangawali, an inlet of fresh water, which separates the Hindoo geographical tract named Haiga, or Haiva, from Kankena (Concan).—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

GAULNA.—A strong hilly district in the province of Candeish, until 1818 mostly possessed by the Holcar family. The country is fertile, and abounds with mountain streams; but when taken possession of by the British government, owing to the incessant ravages it had sustained, was found in a state of great desolation. Besides Gaulna, the principal towns are Chandore, Loneir, Naumpoor, and Wuckaury.

GAULNA.—A hill-fort in the province of Candeish, eighty-seven miles N.W. from the city of Aurungabad; lat. 20° 44′ N. lon. 74° 33′ E. This fort stands on a high rocky mountain, the top of which is surrounded by a stone and brick wall, about a mile in circumference and twenty feet high. The entrance from the pettah is by winding steps well protected by walls and high towers, and the distance to the top about a quarter of a mile. On the east side there is a high barren hill connected with the first by walls and towers, and completely commanded by it.

The town or pettah of Gaulna lies closely under the north side of the mountain, surrounded by a mud wall and towers. It was formerly a large place, but in 1816, while subject to Holcar, it had greatly decayed, although too strong to be molested by the Bheels or Pindaries. To the north-east and west, Gaulna is encompassed by high barren hills, but to the south there is a fine valley bounded by the termination of the western ghauts. The fort is abundantly supplied with water preserved in tanks, and the air at the summit is reckoned salubrious, on account of the dry and stony nature of the adjacent soil. It was captured in 1804 by Col. Murray's detachment, but subsequently restored to Holcar. In 1818, on the approach of the army under Sir Thomas Hislop, the commandant and garrison of Gaulna, terrified by the catastrophe at Talnere, evacuated the fort, which at the peace of Mundissor, together with the pergunnah, was ceded to the British go-

vernment.—(*Sutherland, Malcolm, &c.*)

GAUNSA LAUT ISLE.—A small island lying off the coast of Sumatra; lat. 1′ 48″ 78, where the party under Capt. Crisp, in A.D. 1823, ascertained the length of the pendulum under the equator, which, after numerous experiments carried on for nearly three months, was determined to be 3,902,125,994 inches.

GAWELGHUR (*Gayalghur or Ghargawal*).—A considerable district in the province of Berar, situated about the 21st degree of north latitude, and in 1582 described by Abul Fazel under the name of Kaweel. The surface of the country to the north-east rises into hills of considerable elevation, and is naturally very strong and defensible; the other portion is less hilly, and when under tolerable cultivation very productive, owing probably to the multitude of small streams by which it is intersected.

GAWELGHUR.—A fortress in the province of Berar, the capital of the preceding district, situated on a high and rocky hill, in the midst of a range of mountains lying between the sources of the Tuptee and Poorna rivers; lat. 21° 22′ N., lon. 77° 24′ E., fifteen miles N.W. from Ellichpoor. Fronting the north there is one complete inner fort, where the rock is most inaccessible; and this citadel is strengthened and defended by an outer fort, which entirely covers it to the north and west. The outer fort has a thick wall, which covers its approach by the north from the village of Lambada, all of which walls are strongly built, and fortified by towers and ramparts. To the whole of the fortifications there are three gates: one to the south leading to the inner fort; one to the north which leads to the outer fort; and one to the north which communicates with the third wall. The ascent to the first gate is very long, steep, and difficult; that to the second is by a road used for the common communications of the garrison with the country to the southward, but which leads no further than the gate. It is extremely narrow, the rock being scooped out on each side; and from its passing round the outside of the fort, is exposed to its fire for a considerable distance. Such were the reputed strength and complication of its defences: notwithstanding which it was taken by storm in 1803, by the armies under General Wellesley and Colonel Stevenson, after a siege of only two days; indeed the facility with which these apparently impregnable hill fortresses are captured create strong doubts of their intrinsic strength, and suspicion of exaggeration in their description. This fortress was acquired by Ragojee Bhoonsla, the first about A.D. 1754, having been previously possessed by a Gond chief.—(*5th Register, &c.*)

GAYA ISLE (*or Pulo Grya*).—A small island in the eastern seas lying off the north-west coast of Borneo, about seven miles in circumference, and, being very near the main land, appears from the sea to be an integral portion of its enormous neighbour; lat. 7° N., lon. 116° 2′ E. Near to Pulo Gaya are many smaller, such as Pulo Pangir, Pulo Prin, Pulo Udar, &c.

GAYA (*Gaya*).—A city in the province and district of Bahar, of which last it is the modern capital; lat. 24° 49′ N., lon. 85° E., fifty-five miles south from Patna. It consists of two parts, one the residence of the priests, which is Gaya proper; the other the residence of tradesmen, &c., which having been very much enlarged and ornamented by Mr. Thos. Law, is now called Sahebgunge. The old town of Gaya stands on a rocky eminence between a hill and the Fulgo river; Sahebgunge stands on a plain on the bank of the Fulgo, south from a hill named Ramsila. Formerly between the two there was an open sandy space called the Rumna or chase, but the court-houses have occupied part of this, and the remainder is taken up by the houses and gardens of the few Europeans at the station. The streets in the quar-

ter named Sahebgunge are wide, perfectly strait, and kept in good order, although not paved, with a double row of trees, leaving in the middle an excellent carriage road, with a footpath on each side.

The old town of Gaya is a strange looking place, but its buildings are much better than those of the quarter named Sahebgunge, the greater part of the houses being of brick and stone, and many of them two or three stories high. The architecture is very singular, with corners, turrets, and galleries, projecting with every possible irregularity. The streets are narrow, dirty, crooked, uneven, and encumbered with large blocks of stone, or protruding angles of rock. The reflection of the sun's rays from the rocks by which it is encompassed, and from the parched sands of the Fulgo, render Gaya uncommonly hot, and in spring it is obscured by perpetual clouds of dust. The two stations composing Gaya, during Mr. Law's magistracy, were found to contain 6,000 houses, and it is probable that at least 400 have been since added. The whole are full of population, for besides the resident inhabitants there are always many strangers on the spot, and the pilgrims and their followers often amount to several thousands. The adjacent hill of Ramsila, as well as almost every remarkable eminence in the neighbourhood of this singular place, is the theme of mythological legend, and the excavations are beyond number. Many of these are vaulted caverns cut out of immense masses of solid granite, the interior surface of which has been highly polished. They are distinguishable from the cave temples of the Deccan and west of India by the absence of images and other mythological decorations; although there are groups of Brahminical deities sculptured in relief on some of the rocks at the base of the hill, and on the ground not far off is an insulated figure of Buddha in a sitting posture, of superhuman dimensions.

What is called Pritsila, or the hill of the ghost, is a perpendicular block, eight or nine feet high, projecting from the summit of a rocky steep peak, the ascent to which is difficult. Up this hill the pilgrims are led, one after the other, in the most careless and slovenly manner, by a dirty, ignorant priest, without the slightest appearance of respect for the place or the presiding deity. Another similar lazy and filthy officiator is seen, lolling with his back against the rock, who, without deigning to notice them, permits the votaries to prostrate themselves and kiss his feet, the whole accompanied by the utmost tumult and bawling for money by the religious mendicants.

The chief Mahomedan place of worship stands north from Sahebgunge, where, on the day of the kerbela, about 20,000 persons assemble to celebrate Hassan and Hossein, the grandsons of the prophet. The monument of Munshur Shahi, in Gaya, is also much frequented by persons under the influence of apprehended danger, and in spring 5,000 persons at the tomb of a saint near Kenduya.

At Gaya at present there is no trace of any considerable building of the least antiquity, most of the images, and even materials, appearing to have been brought from Buddha Gaya, and the universal opinion is that five or six centuries ago, Gaya, as a place of worship, was in comparative obscurity, when probably the legend now current was invented, and adapted to the prevailing opinions. From this era the number of pilgrims has been gradually increasing, but these devout persons suffered many checks until Mr. Law protected them by new regulations. Prior to this the pilgrims, on approaching Gaya, found custom houses erected by every landholder or petty officer who had local power sufficient to extort contributions. These Mr. Law abolished, and having ascertained that four sorts of pilgrimages were usually performed, he fixed on a certain sum for a license for the celebration of each. Deductions are, however, made on all licenses to the Nepaulese,

and on the highest licenses to persons who bring water from the Ganges, which class are considered holy, and are generally poor.

Among the places of minor efficacy in the neighbourhood of the chief sanctuaries was a tank; but a gentleman of the name of Seton having cut a road through it, the water and its reputation disappeared. Mr. Seton, during the operation, having found a lingam or emblem of Siva, gave it to Raja Metrajeet of Tickary, who placed it in a neat little temple. This entirely satisfied the people, who made no complaint about the violation of the sacred place; indeed the moderation of the Hindoos in this respect is much to be admired. In another quarter is a tank named Vaiturani, after a pool near the residence of Yama, the infernal judge, in which the souls of dead persons are boiled, unless they have had the precaution of bathing in the terrestrial pool, or if, while on its banks, they omitted to give a few cowries to the Brahmins.

Respecting this celebrated place of worship there are many Brahminical legends, of which the following has the merit of being the shortest. Gaya, an Asoor, giant, and infidel, by severe penance obtained divine favour, and subjugated the three worlds (heaven, earth, and hell) to his power. The demigods, bereft of their dignity, implored the assistance of Vishnu, who entered into a long contest with the Asoor, but could not overcome him. The monster, however, was so well pleased with Vishnu's prowess, that he promised to give him whatever blessing he should ask; and the latter in consequence requested him to descend to the infernal regions. The giant consented, but begged he might be pressed down by Vishnu's foot; which was accordingly done, and the scene of action has ever since been reckoned sacred for the space of several square miles. Such is one of the Brahminical traditions; but the Buddhists ascribe the sanctity of Gaya to its having been either the birth-place or residence of their great prophet and legislator. The British government has an agent at Gaya, who levies a tax on each pilgrim, according to the magnitude of the sins he has to expiate, and of the consequent ceremonies he has to perform. One class, visiting only one place, pays $2\frac{1}{4}$ rupees; another, visiting two places, $3\frac{3}{4}$ rupees; a third, visiting thirty-eight places, pays $4\frac{1}{16}$ rupees; and the fourth class, visiting forty-five places, $14\frac{1}{4}$ rupees. The duty to government, however, is but a small part of the pilgrim's expense, for he is fleeced by the priests, not only of all the money he brings with him, but of promissory notes for future payments, which are sent after him when he returns home; the Gayawals, or priests of Gaya, maintaining emissaries for this purpose in the remotest parts of India, which they also occasionally visit on speculation. The most numerous votaries are Bengalese and Maharattas; and some of the great chiefs of the latter have been known to expend 50,000 rupees.

When a pilgrim arrives, his gayawal, or spiritual father, conducts him to the darogah, or superintending officer, and explains to him the ceremonies his client is desirous of performing; after which an order, specifying the names of the pilgrim and gayawal, as also of the ceremonies contemplated, is made out and signed by the collector. There are numberless regulations among the Gayawals for the internal management, but they are a sort of freemasonry, the particulars of which have never been communicated to the public, although a translation or abstract would certainly prove curious and interesting. Formerly it was customary for the priest to keep the thumbs of his votary tied until he consented to give a sum proportionate to his circumstances; but the British government has ordered that all contributions shall be voluntary, and the collector of the tax, or the magistrate, will, on complaint, compel the priest to perform his duty, and to accept whatever the pilgrim

chooses to give. Persons from a distance are still grossly abused, but the checks imposed have rendered violence less practicable, and the introduction of the British police system so well established their personal security, that the number of these wanderers has been gradually increasing. In A.D. 1799 the number of pilgrims who received licenses to worship at Gaya was 21,659; in 1811 it was 31,114. In 1816 the gross collections amounted to 2,29,805 sicca rupees; charges, 46,926; net receipts, 1,82,876 sicca rupees.

It is usually supposed that the number of pilgrims and their attendants in ordinary years is not less than 100,000; but in times of peace, when visited by any of the great Maharatta chieftains, the number probably exceeds 200,000 persons, with many horses; nor will twenty lacks of rupees defray their expenses in these districts, where many of them sojourn for three months. Indeed the number of crimes that originate in the Bahar district, of which Gaya is the capital, may in a great measure be ascribed to this vast multitude of pious and superstitious pilgrims. The wealth these persons possess generally consists of money, jewels, and other articles, which excite the cupidity of the unprincipled, while the defenceless condition of the greater number of these stragglers exhibits it to them as a prey of easy acquisition Numerous affrays and breaches of the peace may also be expected, where such a number of strangers from all parts of India are promiscuously congregated. Nor will these votaries of superstition gain any addition to their prior stock of morals by their intercourse with their spiritual guides, the Gayawals, who are in general both ignorant and dissolute, and do not affect even the appearance of any self-denial or asceticism of conduct.—(*F Buchanan, Fullarton, Harington, Ward, A. Seton, &c.*)

GEBY (*or Gibby*) ISLE.—An island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, situated on the west side of the Gilolo passage, between the 129th and 130th degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by three the average breadth. It is inhabited, but has never been completely explored. The rise and fall of the tides here at the springs is only ten feet.

GEENGOUL.—A small town or station in Tibet, twenty-eight miles N.E. from the Niti pass; lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

GENTIAH (*Jaintiya*).—A small principality bordering on the British district of Silhet in Bengal, and situated between 25° and 26° 30′ north latitude. On the east it is bounded by Cachar or Hairumbo; on the south by Silhet; on the west by the Garrow mountains, and on the north by Assam. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 100 miles, and extreme breadth, from north to south, about 80 miles.

Of this territory, about sixteen miles on the Silhet side, and about the same number on that of Assam, consist of lowland, resembling Bengal, but interspersed with small hills. About ten miles on the Assam side, and five on that of Silhet, consists of hills covered with thick forest and jungle, like the Garrow mountains. In the intermediate country, about fifty miles in extent, is an undulating hilly table-land, supposed to be from 1,500 to 2,500 feet above the plains, and distinguished by the absence of jungle and the comparative coolness of the climate. It is mostly covered with short herbage, clumps of trees thinly scattered, and occasionally more extensive woods of fir and other trees; the whole space apparently well adapted for pasturage. It is, however, but very thinly inhabited, and except a few yams and other roots, presents no signs of cultivation. Gentiahpoor, the capital, is situated about twenty miles to the north of the town of Silhet. The river Capili, which joins the Brahmaputra a little above Rangamatty, is the chief stream. The principal

produce is rice and cotton, and a coarse species of silk from the wild silkworm, named tusser. Iron, limestone, and coal are among its minerals and both elephants and ivory are exported. The hills are generally barren, and do not yield any valuable timber.

The natives of the country call themselves Cossyahs (Khasiyahs), and it is by this name they are distinguished among the mountain tribes. Their features partake more of the Tartar than Hindostany, and their language marks the line where Sanscrit ceases to form the base of the colloquial languages. Of the thirty-two words that compose the Lord's Prayer in their language, more than half are monosyllables used in the Chinese, while scarcely three words resemble, even in sound, the language of their Bengalese neighbours. They have no original written characters, but their chiefs use those of Bengal, the dialect of which province is gradually becoming more prevalent, and will ultimately supersede the Cossyah. Before their intercourse with Bengal they were devoid of caste; but within the last half century the Brahminical doctrines have made such progress that most of the leading men have adopted them, and been classed by their spiritual instructors in the khetri, or military tribe. Their principal deity is Jayenti Iswara; but many worship the whole Hindoo pantheon, and at the same time endeavour to mollify revengeful evil spirits by human sacrifices.

The Gentiah territory, notwithstanding its limited extent, is governed by many petty chiefs, rulers over one, two, or three hills, whose obedience to the raja is little more than nominal. Their domestic feuds are consequently incessant, their manners barbarous, and condition apparently so miserable, that nothing but a superstitious attachment to the soil prevents the lower classes from migrating into the neighbouring countries under the British government, where there is abundance of uncultivated land.

In 1822 two persons were sent from the Gentiah country to kidnap a Bengalese for a human sacrifice. These miscreants were employed by Gentiah Kooaree, the raja's sister, or sister's daughter, and wife of Oochung Ram Khant, who wished to propitiate the deities Cali, Genti, and Durga, to grant her husband's prayers for the pregnancy of his wife, whose son, by the Cossyah laws, would be heir-apparent to the throne. The messengers were caught and committed to prison by the Bengal police before they had executed their errand, and the matter reported to the Supreme Government, which sent a letter of remonstrance to the Gentiah raja. In 1824 Ram Singh, the reigning chief, was about sixty years of age, and never having been married, his heir-apparent was a grand-nephew, the rule of succession, as with the nairs of Malabar, going solely in the female line. When visited by Mr. Scott, of Rungpoor, in 1824, his army consisted of 150 miserably equipped Hindostany sepoys, to which, on an emergency, it was supposed he could add 5,000 of his own mountaineers. Notwithstanding the very savage stage of civilization which Gentiah presents, its natives are able to construct bridges and erect monuments with stones of an enormous weight. Near to the town of Gentiah, in A.D. 1774, an action was fought by a detachment of British troops and the forces of a native chief.—(*Public Journals, Public MS. Documents, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

George Town.—This is the capital of Prince of Wales' Island, otherwise named Pulo Penang. It is bounded on the north and east by the sea; on the south by an inlet of the sea, and on the west by the high road. The streets are spacious, and cross each other at right angles.—See Prince of Wales' Island.

Gerar.—A small town in the province of Allahabad thirty miles S. by E. from Teung; lat. 24° 18′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E.

Geroli.—A small town in the pro-

vince of Allahabad, twenty miles S.W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 7′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.

GHASSA.—A town in Bootan, the capital of a district and head station of the zoonpoor, or provincial governor; lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 89° 18′ E., twenty-three miles W. by N. from Tassisudon. The highest mountains in this neighbourhood are covered with snow throughout the year, and are visible along the northern frontier of Bengal from Cooch Bahar to Purneah, and at the base of the loftiest is a spring of water, so hot as scarcely to admit of bathing.—(*Turner, &c.*)

GHAUTS, EASTERN.—The chain of hills commonly described under this appellation commences in the south about lat. 11° 20′ N., to the north of the Cavery, and extends, with little interruption or comparative deviation from a straight line, to the banks of the Krishna, in lat. 16° N., separating the two Carnatics; the one named the Carnatic Balaghaut, or above the ghauts (the true Carnatic); the other the Carnatic Payeenghaut, or below the ghauts, extending along the coast of Coromandel. The term ghaut properly signifies a pass through a range of high hills, but the name has been transferred to the mountainous chains that support the central table-land in the south of India.

The exact height of this ridge along its whole course has not been ascertained, which is rather extraordinary; but its general elevation is known to be considerably less than that of the Western Ghauts. About the latitude of Madras, which is the highest part, it is estimated at 3,000 feet; and the table-land of Bangalore, towards Ooscottah, which is within the chain, is more than 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. As the rivers that have their sources in the upper table-land universally decline towards the east, it proves the superior elevation of the western ghauts, and they are by far the most abrupt in their ascent. The geology of these mountains is very imperfectly known; but the chief rock is said to be a granite, consisting of feldspar and quartz, with dark green mica, in a small proportion to the other two ingredients. The rocks appear stratified; but the strata are very much broken and confused. The country above the ghauts, about Naikan Eray, rises into swells like the land in many parts of England, and is overlooked by the high barren peaks of the ghauts, which close the view to the eastward. The soil between Naikan Eray and Vincatigherry is very poor, and covered with copse, having a few large trees intermixed. The whole of the copse land serves for pasture of an inferior sort, and the bushes supply the natives with fuel for domestic purposes and for the smelting of iron. About two miles above Naikan Eray a torrent in the rainy season brings down from the hills a quantity of iron ore, in the form of black sand, which in the dry season is smelted.

The tops of the hills near the Vellore road, by Sautghur, are covered with large stones, among which grow many trees and shrubs, with occasionally a tamarind tree of great age and size. The scenery here exhibits a great contrast to that about Madras, the whole country being undulated, with a few lofty desolated peaks; the whole appearing very barren, and without any extensive forests. This pass has been widened and levelled since the conquest of the Mysore in 1799. Artillery can now ascend it with little difficulty, which was not the case when Lord Cornwallis made his first and unsuccessful attempt on Seringapatam. The tranquility enjoyed by the Mysore and Carnatic, since the final extinction of Hyder's short-lived Mahomedan dynasty, has increased the importance of an easy communication between the two countries.—(*F. Buchanan, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c.*)

GHAUTS, WESTERN.—This chain is better defined than the other, as it extends from Cape Comorin to the Tuptee or Surat river, where, however, it does not terminate in a point or promontory; but departing from

its meridianal course, it bends eastward in a wavy line parallel to that river, and is afterwards lost among the hills in the neighbourhood of Boorhanpoor. In its line along the Tuptee, this ridge forms several ghauts or passes, from which there is a descent into the low land of Candeish. In their whole extent the Western Ghauts include thirteen degrees of latitude, with the exception of a break in the ridge, about sixteen miles wide, in the latitude of Paniany, through which the river Paniany flows to the Western Ocean from the province of Coimbatoor. Their distance from the sea-coast is seldom more than seventy miles, commonly about forty; and they are frequently visible from the sea, to which, between Barcelore and Mirjaoa, they approach within six miles.

The Western Ghaut mountains are in general from 2,000 to 3,000 feet higher than those of the Eastern Ghauts, and several are from 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the level of the sea The peak of mount Subramani, on the frontiers of Coorg, has been estimated at 5,611 feet This altitude is sufficiently great to prevent the body of the clouds passing over them, and accordingly the alternate N.E and S.W. winds (called the monsoons) occasion a rainy season on the windward side of the mountains only, and the greater the height of the chain at any given point the more complete is the division of the climates. In some parts of the Concan and Malabar province west of the ghauts, 130 inches of rain have been ascertained to fall in one year, mostly during June, July, and August, while the contiguous provinces of Bejapoor and Mysore, during this deluge, are only visited by gentle showers. This cause ceases to operate in the parallel of Surat, where the S.W. wind, no longer opposed by a wall of mountains, carries its supplies of moisture without interruption over the whole surface of the country. The extensive region above the ghauts is called a table-land; it is not a regularly flat level country, being on the contrary in many parts studded with hills, and in others mountainous.

The Western Ghauts about the fifteenth degree of north latitude, although steep and stony, are by no means rugged or broken into masses of rock. The stones in the neighbourhood of Cutaki are buried in a rich mould, and in many parts are not seen without digging Instead therefore of the naked, sun-burnt, rocky peaks so common in the Eastern Ghauts, there are here fine mountains covered with stately forests of poon, teak, and other large timber. There are nowhere finer trees, nor any bamboos that can be compared with those that grow in this portion of the Western Cordillera. The ground rattan also abounds in the woods and grows to an enormous size, a specimen having been procured 225 feet in length, and thicker than any Malacca cane The difficulty formerly experienced in ascending these mountains from the Malabar and Canara provinces, may be estimated from that which the Bombay army had to surmount in December 1791. On that occasion two days were spent in dragging up twenty light field pieces two miles, and three weeks to bring up fourteen guns (none heavier than eighteen-pounders) with their tumbrils, to the top of the Ghauts —(*Rennell, F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Moor, Dirom, Colonel Lambton, &c*)

Ghazipoor —A collectorate in the province of Allahabad, zemindary of Benares, situated about the twenty-sixth degree of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the Goggra, on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has the Goggra, and on the west Juanpoor. It has long been celebrated for the excellence of its rose-water, and being also well supplied with moisture, may be noted as one of the most fertile subdivisions of Hindostan The chief towns are Ghazipoor, Azimpoor, and Doory-ghaut.

Ghazipoor.—A very large town in the province of Allahabad, the ca-

pital of the preceding district, situated on the north side of the Ganges, forty-one miles N.E. from Benares; lat. 25° 35′ N., lon. 83° 33′ E. This town is extensive, and within the superintendence of the police office there are no less than 300 villages, all swarming with a population, noted from time immemorial for their refractory spirit and turbulent habits.

At one end of Ghazipoor is a palace (which formerly belonged to Saadit Ali the deceased nabob of Oude) overhanging the Ganges, here flowing in a wide bed and with a slow current; and there are also cantonments for three regiments of cavalry and a branch of the government stud On a plain not far from these, an elegant mausoleum, in the form of a Grecian temple, has been raised to the memory of the Marquis Cornwallis, who died here while on his way to the upper provinces. It is entirely constructed of large blocks of Chunar free-stone, without the intervention of any wood, cost one lack of rupees, and consumed fifteen years in its erection; yet it appears an insignificant structure, when placed in comparison with the meanest of the sepulchral edifices bequeathed to posterity by the Mogul emperors

The government stud in 1823 was remarkably flourishing, 496 most superior horses bred here having that year been passed into the cavalry service by the stud committee, of which number 147 were chargers. The inferior horses sold for large prices in Calcutta, and were driving the Arabs out of the market.—(*Fullarton, Public MS Documents, Locke, &c*)

Ghergong (*Gingrama.*)—A town in Assam, situated on the Dikho river, which falls into the Brahmaputra river from the south. This place was for many years the capital of Assam, but since the insurrection of the Mahamari (or Moamarea) priest, and his rabble, the city, palace, and fort, have continued a heap of ruins. In old maps it is also named Gergong, Gurgown, and Kirganu.—(*Wade, Rennell, &c.*)

Gheriah (*Ghiryi, flowing from a Mountain.*)—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, situated on a promontory of rocky land in the Concan district, about one mile and a quarter broad, and eighty-two miles N.N.W. from Goa; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E. This rock is joined to the continent by a narrow neck of land, and lies one mile from the entrance of a harbour, formed by the mouth of a river that descends from the Western Ghauts. In A.D. 1707 Conajee Angria established an independent sovereignty at Gheriah, and possessed a numerous piratical fleet. In 1756 it was taken by Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, and all the reigning Angria's fleet destroyed.—(*Orme, Bruce, &c.*)

Ghiddore (*Gidhaur*)—A town formerly stood here, and it is still marked in the best maps, but it has long ceased to exist, lat. 24° 52′ N, lon 86° 10′ E, thirty-seven miles S S W from Monghir It is now only remarkable for the ruins of an old castle, said to have been built by Shere Shah, the Patan, who expelled Humayoon the father of Acber, and became Emperor of Hindostan, and founded a short-lived dynasty This fortress (called Naolacca by the surrounding peasantry) is buried in jungle near the foot of a wild and rugged precipice, and so commanded by the adjacent height, that Shere Shah, after it was completed, ordered it to be abandoned What at present remains, consists of a wall rudely built of uncut stones from the neighbouring mountains and very ill put together At the middle and angles these walls are twenty-three feet thick at the bottom, and about seventeen at the top, and seem originally to have been about thirty feet high, without a ditch, and solely adapted for the use of missile weapons. At Ghiddore the plains of Bahar terminate, and the country begins gradually to ascend as the traveller proceeds eastward. The Ghiddore raja resides at

Dumree, a small village on the Kewlee Nullah, fourteen miles S.E. from this site which is wholly destitute of inhabitants.

As illustrative of native manners, the following description of the personal habits of the two Ghiddore rajas in A.D. 1810 may be inserted. First, Raja Gopaul Singh, a fat heavy man, forty-nine years of age and very civil. His usual practice was to rise early. He took forty minutes to clean himself, after which he sat in his office until noon attending to business. He then prayed, bathed, and eat, the whole occupying about an hour and a half, after which he slept. In the evening he sometimes went out to hawk, after which he cleaned himself again and prayed, both of which employed an hour. He then again sat in his office until nine in the evening, when he retired to the inner apartments to eat and sleep. Second, Raja Nerbhoy Singh, a thin timid man about forty-two years of age. He rose early and took about fifty minutes to clean himself, after which he sat in his office until noon. He then washed and prayed for about forty minutes, eat for half an hour, and then slept for an hour and a half. After this he talked with his chief officers, or with men of learning until sun-set, when he cleaned himself and prayed for about forty minutes. He then sat until ten or eleven o'clock, listening to legendary tales recited by the pundit, after which he withdrew to his inner apartments to wash, eat, and sleep.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

GHIZNI.—A celebrated city in Afghanistan, once the capital of a powerful empire; lat. 33° 10′ N., lon. 66° 57′ E. The surrounding country being considerably elevated above the level of the sea, the climate is so cold as to have become proverbial, being described as intense even by the natives of the adjacent cold districts. For a large proportion of the year the inhabitants seldom quit their houses, and even within the city of Ghizni the snow has been known to lie deep for some time after the vernal equino[x]. Traditions also prevail of immen[se] falls of snow which buried under the city and its inhabitants. The cl[i]mate of the flat country to the sout[h] of Ghizni is scarcely more mild tha[n] that of the city. In Kuttawauz th[e] snow lies very deep for three month[s] and when hardened by the frost is ca[]pable of supporting travellers. Du[r]ing part of the winter the streams ar[e] frozen so hard as to bear the weigh[t] of camels. Towards the north [o]f Ghizni, however, this excessive col[d] decreases, until the Kohistaun nort[h] of Cabul is approached, when it agai[n] becomes severe. The surface to th[e] west of Ghizni is interspersed wit[h] low hills, and, except a few cultivate[d] spots, produces little else than [a] prickly aromatic weed on which camel[s] feed with avidity, and which, wit[h] paste of unsifted barley, constitute[s] their chief food; yet these animals wi[ll] carry a load of 800 pounds English. The summer is hardly so warm as tha[t] of England, and admits but of on[e] harvest.

Ghizni continued the capital of [a] powerful empire for nearly two centuries, and a city of importance fo[r] nearly two more. The first sovereig[n] was Nassir ud Deen Sebuctaghi, wh[o] ascended the throne A.D. 975, and invaded Hindostan repeatedly.

A.D.
997. Emir Massood began to reign.
997. Sultan Mahmood.
1028. Sultan Massood.
1041. Emir Modood.
1049. Aboo Jaffer Massood.
1051. Sultan Abdul Rasheed.
1052. Ferokh Zad.
1058. Sultan Ibrahim.
1098. Allah ud Dowlah.
1115. Arsalan Shah.
1118. Byram Shah.
1152. Khosru Shah.
1159. Khosru Mallek, and

A.D. 1171, Saheb ud Deen Mahomed Ghori, who subdued the empire of Ghizni, expelled the dynasty of Sebuctaghi, and burned this then magnificent capital to the ground. The surviving members of the dethroned family retired to Lahore, where they continued

to reign for some time, but about A.D. 1185 became extinct. For many years afterwards Ghizni was known as a principal city, but it subsequently declined to a secondary rank, and at last to total insignificance.

In 1809 Ghizni was reduced to a town of about 1,500 houses, besides a pettah or extramural suburb. It stands on a height, at the base of which flows a river of some size. It is encompassed by stone walls, and contains three bazars of no great breadth, having high houses on each side, and there are also some dark and narrow streets. In the neighbourhood some remains of its ancient grandeur are still to be seen, particularly two lofty minarets, each above 100 feet high. The tomb of the great Sultan Mahmood is still extant, about three miles from the city, and is a spacious building covered with a cupola, but not magnificent. The doors, which are large, are of sandal-wood, and said to have been transported from the temple of Somnauth, in the Gujerat peninsula. The tomb is of white marble, on which are sculptured verses of the Koran, and at its head lies the plain but weighty mace said to have been wielded by the interred monarch: it is of wood, with a leaden head so weighty that few have strength to use it. There are also within the tomb some thrones or chairs inlaid with mother of pearl, and said to have belonged to Mahmood. The tombstone is under a canopy, where some moullahs are still maintained to chaunt the Koran aloud over his grave; and on account of the number of holy men lying here entombed, Ghizni is emphatically called by the Mahomedans the second Medina.

Among the lesser ruins are the tombs of Beloh the wise, and of Hakim Sunai, a poet of celebrity; but nothing remains to point out the Ghiznavi palaces, once the residence of Ferdousi, or of the mosques, baths, and caravanserais that once ordained this oriental metropolis. The most useful antiquity now to be seen is an embankment built by Mahmood across a stream, which was much damaged on the destruction of Ghizni by the Ghori sultans, yet it still supplies water to the fields and gardens round the town. Some few Hindoos are settled here, who carry on a small traffic and supply the wants of the Mahomedan residents. The immediate environs of the city are inhabited by Tajiks and Hazarehs, and the contiguous valley to the north belongs to the Wurduks; but the country between the hills which bound that valley on the east and the Soliman mountains are inhabited by Ghiljies. Travelling distance from Cabul eighty-two miles; from Delhi 917 miles.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, Rennell, Maurice, &c.*)

Ghoa.—A town in the province of Arracan, division of Tonkhwem, situated about 112 miles south from Sandowy. This was once a considerable town, but has been for some years on the decline, and in January 1827, contained only eighty houses. Even then, however, it showed symptoms of revival, as traders from Basseen and opposite side of the Yamadong mountains were beginning to resort to it.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Ghodna.—A small town in northern Hindostan, thirteen miles north of the Chour station; lat. 31° 2′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E.

Ghoraghaut.—A town and zemindary in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, ninety miles N E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon 89° 10′ E. This zemindary, which in 1784 contained 632 square miles, in A.D. 1582 is described by Abul Fazel as producing raw silk, gunnies (sack-cloth), and plenty of Tanyan horses. At an early period after the Mahomedan invasion it appears, along with several others in this quarter, to have been bestowed on different Afghan chiefs, who colonized in them, and received accessions of their countrymen from abroad. Being zealous converters of the Hindoos, and not very scrupulous as to the means, a very large proportion of the inhabitants to this day profess the Maho-

medan religion, and dignify themselves with the Arabian title of Sheik. In process of time the Ghoraghaut zemindary was seized on by the Kakeshelun tribe of Moguls, but for many years past it has reverted to its prior owners, the Hindoos. From the traces of ruins still visible the town of Ghoraghaut appears at one period to have covered a great space; but it is now almost restored to the condition in which it probably existed before the Mussulmaun conquest, being buried in woods and jungles, with tigers prowling about the streets. The most remarkable monument is the tomb of Ismael Ghazi Khan (a holy man and good officer who first subdued this tract), which is much feared and respected both by Hindoos and Mahomedans; and although nearly ruinous, has still a small canopy hung over it. —(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Stewart, &c.*)

GHOUSGHUR.—A large fortified town in the province of Delhi, twenty-seven miles south by west from Saharunpoor; lat. 29° 34′ N., lon. 77° 27′ E. This place was the residence of Nijib ud Dowlah, an Afghan chief, appointed prime minister to Shah Allum by Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul, and of his son Zabeta Khan, who conducted the Doab canal from the foot of the hills to this place.

GHUNEAGHUR.—A small town in Northern Hindostan, twenty-three miles S.E. from Serinagur; lat. 29° 58′ N., lon. 78° 58′ E.

GHUNPOOR.—A district of considerable size in the province of Hyderabad, due south of the capital; but, notwithstanding this vicinity to a large market, scantily cultivated and thinly inhabited. The town of Ghunpoor stands in lat. 16° 33′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E., sixty miles S.S.W. from the city of Hyderabad. It is a fortified hill, and must have formerly been a place of considerable consequence as the mosque is one of the largest and best constructed in the Nizam's dominions. It is now, however, mostly used by travellers as a place of repose, and attended by only one solitary fakeer. Numerous proofs remain that the country was once more populous and better cultivated than it is at present; traces of ruined towns and villages being still visible, as also the marks of former land divisions.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

GHYRETTY.—A small town in the province of Bengal, near the river Hooghly, situated on the high road from Serampoor to Chandernagore. Ghyretty house was formerly the country residence of the governor of Chandernagore, but fell from its state of splendour with the decline of the French. On the opposite side of the river is the village of Pultah; and here is the common ferry, where travellers proceeding from Calcutta to the upper provinces usually cross the river.

GHYSABAD.—A town in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles E.N.E. from Huttah; lat. 24° 13′ N., lon. 79° 51′ E.

GIARITCHAS ISLES.—A cluster of five small islands in the Eastern seas, lying about six miles S.S.W. from Makiam; they are of middling height, and contain many bare rocks, intermixed with green spots and trees.

GILION ISLE.—A small island about thirty miles in circumference, lying off the east end of Madura Isle; lat. 7° 5′ S., lon. 114° 40′ E.

GILOLO ISLE (*or Halmahera*).—A large island in the Eastern seas of a most fantastical shape, consisting of four limbs or peninsulas, separated from each other by deep bays. It lies between the parallels of three degrees north and one south latitude, and may be estimated at 220 miles in length, by thirty, the average breadth, giving an area of about 6,600 square miles.

This island is naturally very fertile, and abounds with bullocks, buffaloes, deer, goats, and wild hogs, but few sheep. The inhabitants subsist mostly on the sago or libby tree, which, like the cocoa-nut tree, has no distinct bark that peels off. It may be described as a long tube of hard wood

about two inches thick, containing a pulp or pith, intermixed with longitudinal fibres of from 200 to 400 pounds weight; from this pith is procured the sago flour, which is the general food of the inhabitants. It is said that east of Gilolo there are not any horses, horned cattle, or sheep.

While the Dutch influence existed among the isles to prevent the smuggling of spices, they discouraged the inhabitants of Gilolo from trading with Celebes, Bouro, Oby, Ceram, Mysol, and Salwatty, and also rooted out the spices in places of easy access, or near the sea. They also forbid the manufacturing of cloth: but the natives continued to make it, procuring their cotton from Bally and the Buggess country. In 1774 the northern part of Gilolo belonged to the sultan of Ternate. Ossa, a town situated on the south side of the great bay of that name, lat. 0°45′N., lon. 128°22′E., affords many conveniences for ships, as they may there be supplied with water, provisions, spars, and other necessaries. In this bay there are also several villages; that of Golonsay, in 1808, was destroyed by the Dutch. The imports come principally from the Dutch settlements and the adjacent islands, and consist of opium, coarse cutlery, piece goods, china ware, and iron; the exports are spices, biche de mar, birds'-nests, tortoise-shell, seed pearl, and sago.

In A.D. 1531 the king of Gilolo, the Papuas, and the princes of the Molucca Isles, joined in a league to exterminate the Portuguese, and succeeded in massacreing a considerable number; but we have no information regarding the modern history, manners, and customs of this island, which has long been wholly under the influence of the Dutch, whose colonial policy is always mixed up with mystery and concealment. Gilolo (with Ceram) is remarkable as being apparently the eastern boundary of Asiatic civilization (such as it is), where the superior races of the animal man stop, and the mop-headed Papuas and South-Sea islanders begin.—(*Forrest, Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

GINGEE (*Jhinji*).—A celebrated fortress in the Carnatic, thirty-five miles N.W. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 12′ N., lon. 79° 28′ E. The fortifications here cover the summits and a great part of the declivities of three detached rocky mountains of very difficult ascent, from 400 to 600 feet high, connected by lines of works that enclose an extensive triangle in the plain between them, divided by another fortified barrier into an outer and inner lower fort. The natives of India, who esteem no fortifications very strong unless placed on high and difficult eminences, have always regarded Gingee as the strongest fort in the Carnatic. It has, however, been captured repeatedly, and was always noted for its insalubrity.

In 1820 the walls of Gingee did not contain a single inhabitant, and the pettah without was reduced to twenty or thirty miserable huts, with the shops of two or three Booneas. The walls, gates, and bastions were still, however, remarkably entire, and the ruins extensive and interesting, more especially the singular seven-storied tower of the palace of the ancient rajas, in the inner fort; the pagoda at the base of St. George's mountain, green with peepul branches and creepers; the two great magazines, the mosque, and the castellated palace. Besides these, the Choultry on the apex of the English mountain, the works and buildings on both eminences, and the vast excavation and savage scenery of the Devil's Tank, are worthy of attention. Gingee has not been garrisoned for a very long period, and many parts of its interior are wholly choked up with jungle.

This fortress was either built or improved on an old foundation of the Chola kings, by the son of Vijaya Runga Naik, the governor of Tanjore, in A.D. 1442, and was successively strengthened by the Mahomedans of Bejapoor, who possessed it from 1669 to 1677, by the Maharattas, who held it from 1677, when it was taken by Sevajee, during a sudden irruption into the Carnatic, until 1698. At the

date last-mentioned it was besieged and taken by Zulficar Khan, the imperial general, and Rajpoot governors being appointed, they affected independence, and assumed the rank of rajas. In 1715 it was held by Saadet Oolla Khan, and in 1750 was taken by surprise, during a night attack by the French, under M. Bussy. After the capture of Pondicherry, it surrendered, in 1761.—(*Fullarton, Wilks, Orme, &c.*)

Girdurpoor.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowtee, which in 1820 contained about 1,500 inhabitants. It stands in a very secluded spot, without any carriage-road, and even the footpaths rugged and difficult, fourteen miles east from the Odeypoor fortress of Bansrar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Girout.—A town in the province of Agra, forty-nine miles east from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 12′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

Girree River.—A small river of Northern Hindostan, which traverses the principality of Sirmore, and falls into the Jumna at Rajghaut, lat. 30° 26′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E.

Githerhaw.—This village stands near the common boundary of the Gundwana and Allahabad provinces, seven miles south from the town of Selyah, and in 1820 belonged to the Nagpoor raja.

Goa (*Govay*).—A city in the province of Bejapoor, the capital of the Portuguese possessions in India; lat. 15° 30′ N., lon. 74° 2′ E., 250 miles S.S.E. from Bombay. This appellation is applied to two distinct places, *viz.* Old Goa, here described; and Panjim or New Goa, situated five miles nearer the entrance of the harbour.—(For the latter, see Panjim.)

The once splendid and populous city of Goa is now a wilderness, of which the monasteries form the only tenanted portion, and a few miserable-looking monks, half of them natives, the only inhabitants. Indeed the city may be traversed from one extremity to the other without meeting a human being, or any other signs of former population than pavements overgrown with grass, gardens and court-yards choked with underwood, and princely dwellings and venerable abbies mouldering rapidly to decay. The chief religious edifices that still remain in tolerable preservation are the cathedral, the churches of St. Caetan, St. Pedro, and St. Domingo, the church and monastery of the Augustins, and the church and monastery of the Jesuits. The last of these possesses the reliques of St. Francis Xavier, his body being interred here in a sepulchre of black marble, richly sculptured in bas-relief, representing divers passages of his life. The church of St. Caetan surpasses the others in architectural elegance. In 1820 there was still a convent of nuns, containing about thirty inmates, and the archbishop of Goa continued to perform service at the cathedral, although he resides at St Pedro. The building formerly occupied by the Inquisition is entire, but has been shut up for many years; and close to the esplanade, which is the common landing-place, stands the ancient palace of the viceroys, long unoccupied, and now going fast to ruin. The principal entrance to the city is by a gate adjoining the palace, over which, in a niche, is the statue of Vasco de Gama, barbarously painted in imitation of life.

Goa was taken from the Hindoo rajas of Bijanagur by the Bhamenee Mahomedan sovereign of the Deccan, about A.D. 1469, and in 1510 was besieged and taken by Albuquerque, on which event he strengthened the fortifications, and made it the capital of the Portuguese dominions in the east. He was recalled in 1518, at which period the Portuguese power in India had reached its greatest height, and from that time declined. It does not appear that they ever possessed any considerable extent of territory, although they maintained a large army of Europeans; and they may be said rather to have disturbed and pillaged India than to have conquered it, or carried on any regular com-

merce. In A.D. 1580 the Portuguese possessed the following places in India, viz. Diu, Damaun, Choul, Bassein, Salsette, Bombay, and Goa. They had factories at, and influenced the government of Dabul, Onore, Barcelore, Mangalore, Cananore, Calicut, Cranganore, Cochin, and Quilon. They had several establishments in the maritime parts of Ceylon, and factories in the bay of Bengal, at Masulipatam, Negapatam, and St. Thomé, with commercial stations in the province of Bengal. In addition to these they possessed the city of Malacca, and had trading factories in the countries that compose the modern Burmese empire, and British district of Chittagong. In the Eastern Islands they had many establishments, enjoyed the trade of the Spice islands, and a considerable intercourse with Japan and China, but did not acquire Macao until 1586.

After the conquest of Portugal in 1580, by Philip the Second of Spain, the connexion between the Portuguese settlements and the mother country was very much loosened, and the intercourse abridged. In the three years (1620 to 1622) that Hernan de Abuquerque was viceroy, he never once received any letter of instruction or information from the court of Spain; the colonies must consequently have been supported entirely from their own resources, while involved in a destructive war with the Dutch. The vices of their internal government, and exorbitant power of the priests, assisted to accelerate their decay. The viceroy never had any power over the Inquisition, and was himself liable to its censures. Towards the conclusion of the French revolutionary war, the settlement seemed again abandoned by the mother country, and the poverty of the inhabitants became extreme, many females of the best families being compelled to earn a scanty subsistence by making lace or artificial flowers, and working muslins. While the Portuguese European trade lasted it was carried on entirely on account of the king, there being no record of any voyage from Portugal to India on account of individual Portuguese merchants.

Including the islands the Portuguese still possess territory in the neighbourhood of Goa, forty miles in length by twenty in breadth; but the viceroy and chief inhabitants reside entirely at Panjim or New Goa. In 1808 it was estimated that within the above tract there were 200 churches and chapels, and above 2,000 priests. The dialect mostly prevalent is a mixture of the European with the Canara and Maharatta languages; but the European Portuguese is also understood by a great majority. At present, excepting a very few of the highest classes, the great mass of Portuguese population throughout India are the spurious descendants of European settlers by native women; and the numerous converts that have joined them, the last still retaining many Pagan customs and predilections. In 1820 the Portuguese force stationed at Panjim and other places was barely sufficient for the purposes of police; yet it was principally through their agency that two revolutions (constitutional and regal) were effected without bloodshed in 1821-22. Even under all these disadvantages, the expenses of the government are said to be entirely defrayed from the local revenues, derived chiefly from cocoa-nut plantations and port-duties. Besides Goa the remaining Portuguese possessions in India are Damaun, Diu, Macao in China, Dhelli, on the island of Timor, also establishments on Sumbhawa, Floris, and some others of the Eastern Isles.

Travelling distance from Poona, 245 miles; from Bombay, 292, from Delhi, 1,158; and from Calcutta, 1,300 miles.—(*Fullarton, C. Buchanan, Bruce, &c*)

Goack.—A town in the island of Celebes, the native capital of the Macassar country, which is sometimes called the kingdom of Goack; lat 5° 13′ N., lon. 119° 21′ E. In A.D. 1512, subsequent to the arrival

of the Portuguese, the Malays were allowed to build a mosque at Goack, the natives not being yet converted to the Mahomedan religion. In 1778 this city was taken by assault by the Dutch, the fortifications razed, and the government new modelled. Prior to this event, the sovereign of Goack was not despotic, but was obliged to consult his nobility regarding the performance of any important regal function, every township having a chief nearly independent.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, Marsden, &c.*)

GOAHATI (*the cow market*).—A small town in the province of Assam, situated on the south side of the Brahmaputra, seventy-three miles east of Goalpara, lat. 25° 55′ N., lon. 91° 40′ E. This was once the capital of the ancient Hindoo division named Camroop, which included great part of Assam, but is now in a very miserable condition.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

GOALGUNGE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles S.W. from Chatterpoor, lat. 24° 43′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

GOALPARA (*Goyalpara*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, situated on the south side of the Brahmaputra, 170 miles N. by E. from the city of Dacca, lat. 26° 8′ N., lon. 90° 38′ E. This place contains some good houses, and a street of shops, which in this remote and barbarous region excite great admiration among the rude tribes in its vicinity. The number of houses that may be considered as belonging to the town amount (1809) to about 400, most of them miserable huts, and with the exception of a few, regularly surrounded by the floods for above two months in the year, so that the only passage from house to house is in boats; and inside, the floors are covered from two to three feet deep with water. In other respects, also, this place exhibits a squalid scene of vice and misery. Goalpara is, notwithstanding, a place of considerable resort, and the principal mart of the intercourse with the Assamese, who bring here coarse cloths, stick-lac, tar, wax, and occasionally gold to barter. Salt is the article they usually take in return, but it is delivered to them much adulterated. Neither has this traffic hitherto been so considerable as might have been expected, owing to the disorderly state of the Assam country, and the barbarity of its chiefs, who formerly were accustomed to settle their unadjusted accounts by the assassination of their creditors. Recently, however, a great change has taken place in this quarter of Asia, by the expulsion of the Burmese in 1824, and the protection since bestowed on this distracted country by the British government, has had the effect of completely tranquillizing it. A great increase of commercial intercourse, therefore, may now be expected, not only with Assam, but also with the hitherto unknown nations far beyond its limits.

There are a few families of Portuguese Christians scattered over the Rungpoor district, but at Goalpara there are as many as twenty termed Choldar, which seems a corruption of soldier. None of them can either read or write; only two or three know a few words of Portuguese, and they have entirely adopted the dress of the natives. The only European customs they retain are, that the women curtsey, and the men shew by a motion of the hand as they pass, that if they had a hat they would take it off. Notwithstanding the absence of this distinguishing covering, the men retain some portion of European activity, and are much feared by the natives, who employ them as messengers in making a demand, such as the payment of a debt, to a compliance with which they think a little fear may contribute. The females gain a subsistence chiefly by sewing and distilling spirituous liquors, of which last article the men consume as much as they can afford, and retail the remainder. Concerning the Christian religion they appear to know little or nothing, nor have they any priest. Sometimes they go to Bowal

near Dacca, in order to procure a priest to marry them; but in general this is too expensive, and they content themselves with a public acknowledgment of their marriages.

On a hill near Goalpara there have been several buildings of brick, apparently of a religious origin. At the east side of the hill, near the river, is a piece of granite on which is carved a figure of Buddha, which the people worship and name Siva. In 1809, a Brahmin from the west of India, who had formerly been a merchant, was reported to have found a sum of money, which fact, however, he denied. In consequence of a dream he built a small place of worship on the hill, and endeavoured to bring its sanctity into repute; but although he hired persons daily to make a noise with drums, frequently went naked, and performed otherwise many extravagant actions, he did not succeed, nor could he by all these exertions establish his character as an idiot (dewana), a being much venerated in the east, but continued strongly suspected of being a knave.

About Goalpara easterly winds prevail during three months of the year, but for four months after the middle of October they incline to the northward. Westerly winds blow from about the middle of February until the middle of April, when the east winds re-commence, and refresh the earth with coolness and gentle showers, often alternating with southern breezes.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

GOANDS.—See GONDS.

GODAVERY RIVER (*Godavari, also named the Gunga Godavery.*)—Innumerable rivulets issuing from the western ghaut mountains and Chandpoor hills, about the twentieth degree of north latitude and seventieth of east longitude, join their streams near to Koombhauree, and their union forms the main channel of the Godavery river. From among these currents the Hindoos have selected one to which, without any apparent reason for the preference, they assign the honour of being the source of the Godavery, one of their most sacred streams, and the largest river of the Deccan. At Trimbuck Nasser, fifty-three miles distant from the Western ocean, where this brook springs from the earth, temples are erected, which are resorted to by pious Hindoos from all parts of India.

After traversing the large province of Aurungabad and the Telingana country from west to east, it turns to the south-east, and receives the Bain Gunga (the Vana Gunga) about ninety miles from the sea, besides many smaller streams in its previous course. At the celebrated pass through the Papkoonda mountains, near the Rajamundry frontier, it is contracted from one mile and a half to a single furlong in breadth, by precipitous hills 2,000 feet high. At Collysaur ghaut, in the province of Gundwana, lat. 18° 38′ N., lon. 80° 35′ E., its channel is one mile broad, and in the beginning of May consists of a wide expanse of sand, the river being separated into numerous shallow streams, nowhere more than fifteen inches in depth, whereas during the rainy season, when its bed is filled, this river rolls along a prodigious volume of water. At a short distance from Badrachellum there are hot springs in the middle of the bed of the Godavery. Near Rajamundry it separates into two principal branches, and these subdividing again, form altogether several tide harbours for vessels of moderate burthen, such as Ingeram, Coringa, Yanam, Bunder Malanca, and Nassipoor, but prove serious interruptions to travelling along the sea-coast.

The forests along the banks of this river abound with timber fit for the purposes of ship-building. In 1816 certain parts of the Godavery were deepened and obstructions removed in others by Messrs. Wm. Palmer & Co., who, from their own observation, and from facts detailed by inhabitants of the Ramghur and Poloonshah pergunnahs, were of opinion, that a navigation of 400 miles in length might be opened during four months of the year on this river and

the Wurda, which would greatly facilitate commercial intercourse between the inland provinces of the Deccan, and the Bay of Bengal. Including windings, the whole course of the Godavery may be estimated at eighty-five miles, from its source to its junction with the sea.—(*Rennell, J. Grant, J. B. Blunt, H. Russel, Voysey, &c.*)

GODRA (*or Gudara.*)—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, sixty-seven miles N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22°48′ N., lon. 73° 44′ E.

GOELWAR (*or Gohlwar.*)—A division of the Gujerat peninsula bounded on the north by the river Bhadur and the British district of Arratum, on the east by the gulf of Cambay; on the south by the sea; and on the west by Cattywar and the Walak coast. It is watered and fertilized by many rivers, and contains the valuable seaports of Bhownuggur and Gogo. The name is derived from the Goel tribe of Rajpoots. The face of Goelwara, although generally flat, has several conspicuous mountains, among which may be reckoned Oollitana and Seroi. By the conditions of Col. Walker's agreement in 1807, the chieftains of Goelwara were bound to pay to the Guicowar state a perpetual tribute of 1,11,700 rupees, which the district can afford, as it is fertile, and produces almost every kind of grain, much of which is exported. There is also an ambawan or mangoe forest, extending for about a couple of miles, and remarkable as being the only thing of the kind in the Gujerat peninsula. —(*Walker, Macmurdo, &c.*)

GOGGRA (*Gharghara.*)—This river has its source in the Himalaya mountains, but the exact spot has never been ascertained. The principal branch of the Goggra is named the Cali, now the eastern boundary of Kumaon, and before it quits the mountains it is joined by the Sarjou (Sareyu), or Deva, after which their united streams issue from the hills at Bremadeo (Brahma Deva), and the river thence forward is indifferently named the Goggra, Sarjou, or Deva. In the course of its passage through the hills several rapids occur, but there are no ascertained rapids although such are marked in the best maps. The Goggra forms one of the largest streams contributary to the Ganges, which it joins in the province of Bahar. Major Rennell thinks it is the Agoramis of Arrian.

In the mythological poems of the Brahmins, this river is always mentioned by the name of the Sareyu, which in modern times it has almost lost. Its banks were formerly esteemed of peculiar sanctity, having been much frequented by Viswamitra and other potent and cholenc Hindoo saints.

GOGO.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the west side of the Gulf of Cambay; lat. 21° 40′ N., lon. 72° 23′ E. This is a safe roadstead during the S.W. monsoon, to which vessels may run in case of parting with their anchors in Surat roads, it being an entire bed of mud about three-fourths of a mile from the shore. The natives are chiefly Mahomedans, who build vessels from fifty to 300 tons, and formerly carried on a brisk trade to Bombay; but latterly much of this traffic has been transferred to Bhownuggur. — (*Elmore, &c.*)

GOGUL CHUPRA.—A town in the province of Malwa, thus named from its vicinity to Chupra, from which it is distant only seven miles. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Ameer Khan, to whom it yielded an annual revenue of 50,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

GOHRA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad belonging to Punnah, twenty-three miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 79° 5′ E.

GOHUD.—The capital of a division in the province of Agra, twenty-two miles N.E. from Agra; lat. 26° 24′ N., lon. 78° 20′ E. About the middle of last century Gohud was a small village attached to the district of

Gualior, and the Rana's ancestors were zemindars of the village, and by caste Jauts of the Bamrowly tribe. Bheem Singh, the Rana prior to the battle of Paniput in 1761, acquired Gualior, but was afterwards obliged to yield it to the Maharattas. When this people lost the battle of Paniput, the Rana of Gohud attempted to shake off their yoke, but was subdued by Ragoonauth Row in 1766, and compelled to continue tributary. On a subsequent rupture, Gualior was taken by Madhajee Sindia in 1784.

The territory of Gohud, though hilly is fertile, and in 1790 was supposed to yield a revenue of twenty-two lacks of rupees per annum, out of which seven went to the expenses of collection. What modifications or dissections the limits of this principality subsequently experienced we are not informed, but in 1805 we find them described by Mr. Metcalfe as extending along the Chumbul, and producing only eighteen lacks per annum, of which nine were appropriated for the payment of the subsidiary forces.—(*Third and Seventh Registers, Treaties, Metcalfe, &c.*)

Gohun.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eleven miles N. by W. from Juloun; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 79° 13′ E.

Gokauk.—A town in the province of Bejapoor possessed by the Putwurdun family, forty-nine miles N. from Darwar; lat. 16° 11′ N., lon 74° 58′ E. It stands on the northern acclivity of a hill, watered on its northern side by the Gutpurba, which immediately opposite has deep water; but there is a ford one mile east of the town. It is enclosed by a wall and ditch on its eastern and southern sides, but to the westward it is commanded by a hill. This is a place of considerable extent and importance, and in 1790 had a considerable manufactory of silk and cotton fabrics, both in the form of dresses and of piece goods. The silk was imported, probably from Bengal by the way of Goa. When taken by Sultan Mauzzum, in A.D. 1685, Gokauk was the head of a district, but does not now possess any building or ruin of consequence. About two miles from hence there is a superb cataract formed by the river Gutpurba, which is precipitated from the hills to the low country. During the rains this river, about 169 yards broad, rushes for some space down an inclined plane, and then in one unbroken mass into a ravine cut through the table-land, and bounded on both sides by mural precipices. A very handsome and elaborately finished temple of Mahadeva stands amidst a group of inferior religious edifices, on the brink of the cataract to the right, and a picturesque wooded hill rises some hundred feet above its margin on the opposite side.—(*Moor, Fullarton, &c.*)

Gokul.—A small town in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, situated on the left side of the Jumna, six miles below Mathura. This spot is one of the supposed scenes of the early adventures of Krishna, who is worshipped here under the name of Gokul.

Golconda (*Golkhanda.*)—An extensive division of the Hyderabad province occupying the tract of country to the east of the capital, north and south of the Mussy river, which intersects it. Although renowned in Europe for diamond mines, it at present does not contain any, and probably never did. The fortress is, notwithstanding, a very considerable dépôt for these gems, which are brought, however, from other marts, mostly in the Balaghaut districts, to be polished and fashioned for sale by the Golconda diamond merchants. In the immediate neighbourhood nothing is to be seen but syenite, but about forty miles further west, opals and chalcedonies are found.

The fortress of Golconda stands on a hill about three miles W N.W. from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 15′ N., lon. 78° 32′ E. It was once the capital of an extensive kingdom, first under Hindoo princes, and afterwards as a division of the Bhamenee

empire, upon the fall of which it again became the seat of a monarchy under the Cuttub Shahee dynasty. In A.D. 1690 it was surrendered by treachery to the Mogul army of Aurengzebe, after a siege of seven months. The deposed sovereign, Abou Hossein, died here in confinement in 1704. At present this fortress is principally used as a state-prison, where the refractory members of the Nizam's family are confined; among which number, in 1815, were his wife, mother, and two youngest sons. The principal inhabitants and bankers of Hyderabad are also permitted to retain houses in the fort, to which on any alarm they retire with their money.

In the alluvial soil of the plains at the base of the Neela Mulla mountains, and more especially near the banks of the Krishna and Pennar rivers, are situated the mines that produce the famous Golconda diamonds, the territory adjoining the fortress of Golconda never having produced any precious stones whatever. Its reputation for them probably originated from their having been brought in a rough state to Golconda to be cut and polished. An opinion prevails among the miners that the diamond is continually growing, similar to that prevalent in Cornwall with regard to tin, and that the chips and small pieces rejected by former searchers in process of time become large diamonds. In 1820 Dr. Voysey found most of the diamond mines deserted, and the search confined to the rubbish of the old mines. He assumes that sandstone breccia of the clay formation is the matrix of the diamonds procured in the Deccan; that those found in an alluvial soil have been brought down by some torrent or deluge, and that those found in the beds of rivers are washed down by the annual rains; but if so, their sources might be traced.—(*Scott, Voysey, Upton, Heyne, &c.*)

GOMANO ISLE.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, lying due north of Oby Island, from which it is separated by a narrow strait; lat. 1° 55′ S., lon. 127° 40′ N.

GOMATA SEBOLE.—A fortified town in the province of Bejapoor, principality of Colapoor, eight miles travelling distance south from Merrich.

GOMPA.—A village and remarkable pass through the hills in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, on the line of the Benares road, 200 miles N.W. from Calcutta.

GONAWUD.—A small town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Deypaulpoor, four miles from Moondla, and ten from the town of Deypaulpoor; lat. 22° 56′ N., lon. 75° 28′ E.

GONDEGAMA RIVER.—A small stream which rises among the Balaghaut hills, and after a short course falls into the bay of Bengal at Moutapilly, marking by its channel the separation of the modern Carnatic from the Northern Circars.

GONDWARA.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, twenty miles S. by W. from the town of Purneah; lat. 25° 33′ N., lon. 87° 26′ E.

GONDS (*or Goands*).—See GUNDWANA.

GOOCHNAUTH.—A village in the province of Gujerat, situated on the south bank of the Banass river, about three miles S.E. from Rahdunpoor.

GOODECOTTA.—A town and small district in the Mysore territory, forty-four miles N. by E. from Chitteldroog; lat. 14° 47′ N., lon. 76° 42′ E.

GOODOOR.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, seventeen miles W.S.W. from Carnoul; lat. 15° 40′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E.

GOODOOR.—A village in the Carnatic province and Nellore district, twenty-two miles south from the town of Nellore. This place contains a small mosque and two pa-

godas, and there is a collector's bungalow open for the accommodation of travellers.

GOOLGUNGE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles S.W from Chatterpoor, lat. 24° 42 N, lon 79° 29′ E

GOOMRAPOONDY.—A village in the Carnatic province, and northern district of Arcot, twenty-seven miles travelling distance N W by N. from Madras. There is a bungalow here for the accommodation of travellers.

GOOMTEE.—See DWARACA.

GOOMTY RIVER (*Gomati, winding*).—This river has its source in Northern Hindostan, among the hills of Kumaon, from whence it flows in a south-easterly direction nearly parallel with the Goggra, and after passing the cities of Lucknow and Juanpoor, falls into the Ganges below Benares It is named the Goomty from its extremely winding course, which is a circumstance common to rivers traversing the Gangetic plain. There are many other rivers of a secondary class distinguished by the same epithet more especially one that passes Comillah, the capital of the Tiperah district, which springs from an unknown source among the eastern hills, and falls into the Megna at Daoodcaundy It is navigable to canoes fifty miles above Comillah

GOOMSUR (*Ghumsara*).—A town and large zemindary in the Northern Circars, district of Ganjam, sixty miles west from Juggernauth. The country in this neighbourhood is remarkably impenetrable, the forests consisting of bamboos, which grow closer and resist the axe better than any other species of ligneous vegetation. In former times the inhabitants, relying on these, did no think it necessary to erect redoubts for the defence of the paths leading to their strong-holds, but obstructed them with frequent barriers of bamboos, wrought into a variety of entanglement. Besides its naturally pestilential atmosphere, the whole tract is one of the hottest in India, and is particularly subject to strokes of the sun, by which M. Bussy, in 1757, lost seven Europeans in one day.

In 1804 this estate stood rated in the revenue records as containing 506 villages, with an estimated population of 66,016 persons, and assessed to the land-tax 21,248 pagodas, but the proprietor, although in regular subjection to the British authority, so long as he paid the stipulated rent, had been little interfered with When originally transferred to the East-India Company, several of the best informed public functionaries were of opinion that, owing to the peculiar delicacy of extending the full authority of the courts of law over zemindaries situated on the frontiers and among the high lands, it would be more advisable to regard the proprietors rather as tributary chieftains, than as ordinary subjects *amenable to the usual process of the* courts of justice. In progress of time, however, the population generally, and even many of the zemindars, have been forward in bringing their matters of litigation before the regular courts, and have subsequently submitted to the decrees without murmur or resistance. The Goomsur chiefs had long remained nearly independent, and might have continued so had not the enormous atrocity of their conduct compelled the interference of the British government

In 1815 a charge of murder was brought against the zemindar Danoongjoy Bunje by his father, who for his own previous crimes had been deprived of the zemindary, and a reward proclaimed for his apprehension An investigation in consequence took place, when it appeared from the evidence of the surviving females of the seraglio, that the zemindar Danoongjoy Bunje, in 1814, became impressed with the idea that his wives and the female part of the family had conspired to deprive him of his life, with the view of setting up his eldest son, named Bulbudder Bunje, as zemindar of the country. Under this alarm Danoongjoy confined

a great many of his wives, concubines, and slave girls, most of whom, from the inhuman treatment they received during their imprisonment, died on the spot. The survivors deposed before the magistrate that they were all chained to a log of wood placed in the centre of two rooms, with holes large enough for two legs; that being thus seated in pairs opposite to each other, each having one leg in the hole of the log, they were secured by a wooden pin; but the remaining legs were placed on the top of the log, chained together in irons. Several of them declared (one being only thirteen years of age) that they had witnessed the death of the person to whom they were chained until the corpse had become putrid and covered with worms, and as the marks on their limbs proved they had undergone at least some part of the cruelties they had asserted, the black and malignant nature of the zemindar's disposition rendered the rest extremely probable.

Orders were in consequence issued to seize Danoongjoy, and to dismantle the strong fortress of Kolaida, which fortress, although within fifty miles of Ganjam, the zemindar repeatedly asserted existed only in the imagination of the magistrate. When attacked, however, in May 1815, by a small detachment of the Madras army under Col. R. Fletcher, it was found to be of such extent and strength, that the troops during their stay were only able to destroy the stockades and houses. From thence the detachment proceeded in pursuit of the zemindar to Jarang, where they did not succeed in effecting his capture, but had the good fortune to effect the release of about one hundred men who were found in irons, besides women and children, and others were reported to have been put to death on the approach of the military.

Anxious to establish or confute the assertions of the female witnesses, the magistrate determined to visit the gloomy fortress of Kolaida, to examine a well in which it was said the bodies of those who had died in confinement had been thrown, and to collect further information on the spot. The well being pointed out by two female slaves, who, according to their own account, had been employed in putting the dead bodies there, after six hours' digging, finger-bones, ribs, and other parts of the human frame began to make their appearance, intermixed with earth; and after a further lapse of time, a great number of skulls and bones were met with. In excavating to the depth of twenty-four feet, eighteen entire skulls were thrown out, and an immense pile of bones collected, from the condition of which there was reason to believe the bodies they appertained to must have remained a long time in the well, as all the flesh and hair were gone, and nothing remained perfect but the bones and teeth, the whole corroborating the depositions as to the fact of the bodies having been thrown into the well. It appeared also that the zemindar, apprehending a research of this nature, had ordered two of his dependents to dig the wells and remove the bodies, which had actually been done (as they confessed) into another well. Three human skulls, with a quantity of bones, were also found in the fortress of Kolaida by the officers of the detachment, close to five stakes wedged into the ground, which had every appearance of a place appropriated to confinement and torture. In fact, the hill zemindars of the Northern Circars had long been accustomed to exercise despotically the power of life or death, and also to levy contributions through the means of a desperate banditti. The present consequently seemed an excellent opportunity to make an example of a most atrocious petty tyrant, who subsequently emerged from the jungles to which he had fled, and surrendered himself; but it does not appear that he ever suffered the punishment due to the enormity of his crimes.—(*Travers, Woodcock, Orme, &c.*)

GOONDA.—A town in the king of

Oude's territories, twenty-eight miles N. by E. from Fyzabad; lat. 27° 9′ N., lon. 81° 52′ E.

GOONEE RIVER.—This small river appears to be a branch of the great Indus, which during the rains diverges from the main trunk a short distance south of Hyderabad, from whence it flows in a southerly direction to Luckput Bunder, where its further navigation was formerly interrupted by a mound, to the base of which the salt water of the ocean ascended; but the great earthquake of 1819 destroyed this bund or embankment, and effected an union of the two. During its progress south, it passes through part of the great salt morass named the Runn, and is navigable for boats during the months of July and August.

GOONGRANA.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty miles E N E. from Sirhind; lat. 30° 44′ N, lon. 75° 52′ E.

GOONONG SELLOO.—A small town in the island of Celebes, where the Dutch formerly had a settlement, situated on a river of the same name; lat. 0° 30′ N, lon. 123° E. This place stands on the north side of the great bay of Goonong Telloo, named also Tominie, which deeply indents the east coast of Celebes. The inhabitants are Malays, and of course Mahomedans, but their chief assumes the Hindoo title of raja.

GOORSERAI.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-one miles N.W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 37′ N., lon. 79° 7′ E.

GOOTY *(Guti)*.—A district in the Balaghaut ceded territories, situated principally between the fifteenth and sixteenth degrees of north latitude Besides Gooty, the capital, there is not any town of note nor any stream of magnitude except the Pennar. Gooty is first mentioned as a district during the reign of Aurungzebe, when it formed part of a small state held by the predecessors of the Shahnoor family, who were dispossessed in 1758 by the Maharatta partizan chief Morari Row. In the course of the three years' war between Hyder and the Maharattas, from 1776 to 1779, the province of Gooty was conquered by the former, and the raja (who was never afterwards heard of) carried away prisoner. With the rest of the Balaghaut district it was ceded by the Nizam to the British government in 1800, and is now an integral portion of the Bellary collectorate.

GOOTY —A strong fortress in the Balaghaut ceded territories, and for some time the capital of a petty Maharatta state, lat. 15° 8′ N., lon 77° 42′ E., forty-four miles east from Bellary. The fort of Gooty is composed of a number of strong works, occupying the summits of a circular cluster of hills connected with each other, and enclosing a space of level ground, the site of the town, which is approached from the plain by two breaks or openings, forming fortified gateways to the south-west and north-west, and by two footpaths across the lower hills, communicating by small sally ports. An immense smooth rock, rising from the northern limit of the circle, and fortified by gradations, ascended through fourteen gateways, overlooks and commands the whole of the other works, forming a citadel which, with a tolerable garrison, may be considered impregnable. The Gooty mountain is composed of syenite, in which red feldspar prevails. The extreme height of Gootydroog above the sea has been ascertained to be 2,171 feet; but notwithstanding this elevation, the heat here during the months of April and May is most intense. The mean height of the country extending round Gooty and Bellary is 1,182 feet above the level of the sea, and from this plain the hills and mountains rise like islands from the sea. Travelling distance from Seringapatam, 228 miles; from Madras, 269; and from Hyderabad, 178 miles.—*(Wilks, Lambton, Rennell, &c.)*

GOPAULGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirteen miles north

from Seronge; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 77° 41′ E.

Gorabunder.—A village and small fort situated at the northern extremity of the island of Salsette, in the province of Aurungabad. At this place there is a small but handsome building, nearly in the form of a church, with a nave leading to a circular chancel, covered with a high cupola, and surrounded by a veranda, the whole arched with stone and solidly built. It is generally regarded as a Portuguese church, but has not been used as such within the memory of man, and differs from most churches in having the entrance at the east, instead of the west end. It is now used as an occasional residence for the governor of Bombay, and it makes in reality a cool and convenient house for this climate, and commands a magnificent view. A narrow arm of the sea, extending from this place to Tannah along a space of about sixteen miles, divides the island from the main land. This winding passage is in some parts bounded on both sides by mural rocks, and presents much beautiful scenery. At Daravee, a few miles to the north of Gorabunder, there are some basaltic rocks. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Goram Isle.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, and situated one day's sail E. by N. from Banda. This island is inhabited by Mahomedans, and is said to contain thirteen mosques. In A.D. 1774 the Dutch sent an armed force of Buggesses against Goram, but they were repulsed by the inhabitants.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Gorkha.—A town and district in Northern Hindostan, the original country of the reigning Nepaul dynasty; lat. 27° 52′ N., lon. 84° 22′ E., forty-one miles W.N.W. from Catmandoo. Prior to the conquest of Nepaul by Raja Prithi Narrain, the Trisoolgunga river separated the territories of the Gorkha and Newar (or Nepaulese) princes, the western limit of the first being marked by the Marichangdi. The Gorkha territory, although situated more to the north, is rather warmer than the Nepaul valley, and, like it, is watered by various fertilizing mountain streams, which are all ultimately absorbed by the Trisoolgunga, the declination of the country being in that direction. Its chief inhabitants formerly were Brahmins and Khasiyas, in about equal numbers, with rather fewer Magars, the Brahmins being the chief cultivators, the Khasiyas and Magars fighting men, but many of the last have transferred their residence to Catmandoo. Gorkha, the capital, stands on a high hill, and is said to be the only place of note in the principality. According to native accounts, for it does not appear to have ever been visited by any European, it contains about 2,000 houses, and a temple dedicated to Gorakhanath, who is the tutelar deity of the reigning princes.

The Sah family, which has risen to such extraordinary eminence, and for two whole campaigns contended on terms of equality with the British government, pretend to be descended from the Rajpoot family of Odeypoor: but this must be considered a mere fable, as on the arrival of the original Hindoo colony from the south, they were certainly of the original unconverted mountaineers named Magars. One of its branches, however, has long adopted the Brahminical rules of purity, and has intermarried with the best families; but the other continues to wallow in all the mire of primitive impurity. The first persons of the Gorkha family of whom there is any tradition were two brothers, Khancha and Mincha, names altogether barbarous, and in no respect resembling the high-sounding titles of the family of the sun, from which the modern chiefs claim descent. From these various obscure chiefs descended, for the Gorkhas being cut off from any direct intercourse with either the low country or Tibet, having neither mines nor productions suited to commercial exchange, were always considered insignificant until Nurbhupal

procured in marriage, first, a daughter of the Palpa family, and, secondly, a daughter of the sixth son of a chief of Malebum. His son, Prithi Narrain, commenced the aggrandizement of the family by the conquest, in 1768, of Nepaul Proper, under which head further historical details will be found. On the accomplishment of that undertaking, the seat of government was transferred to Catmandoo, and being followed by many of the natives, Gorkha, the original capital, has been much neglected, and in consequence has greatly declined.—(*F. Buchanan, Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

GORTOPE (*or Garoo*).—A place in Tibet or southern Tartary, which rather deserves the name of an assemblage of tents than a town; lat. 31° 8′ N., lon. 80° 23′ E. The tents are made of blankets, surrounded by hair ropes fixed on stakes, and over the whole are various coloured shreds of silk and cloth as flags. They are usually surrounded by a litter of bones, horns, and tufts of wool. The chief persons here, as in other towns of Tibet, are the Deba and Vizier, who wear long tails of three plaits. The plains in the vicinity are covered with large flocks of sheep, goats, yaks, and there are also a few horses. The mountains on each side of this valley dip very much to the north-west; they are destitute of vegetation, but said to contain much gold and mineral substances.

According to the information collected by Mr. Moorcroft, the river that rises near to Dharchan, or Gangari, runs past Gortope about four miles west, then close to Lahdack, and at last falls into the main stream of the Indus, of which it appears to be the most remote source. Lahdack was reported to be ten days' journey from Gortope, the Deba of which informed Mr. Moorcroft that caravans of 500 and 600 people came on horseback to the Gortope fair, but he did not say from whence. The Tartars here call Europeans Felings (probably their way of pronouncing Feringhee), and appeared to have an equal aversion to them and to the Gorkhas. Guinnak, the capital of Chinese Tartary, is said to be twenty days' journey from hence to the north-east.—(*Moorcroft, &c.*)

GORUCPOOR (*Gorakhapura*).—A British district in the province of Oude, situated about the twenty-seventh degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the hills and forests of Nepaul; on the east it has the zillah of Sarun; and on the west by the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories. It is divided by the Goggra into two distinct portions, the southern being named Azimghur, and the northern Gorucpoor Proper. In A.D. 1813 Azimghur appeared to contain 350,190 begas in cultivation, assessed at 9,54,145 rupees, or about two and three-quarter rupees per bega. The number of begas fit for cultivation was estimated at 263,003, the waste at 1,291,772 begas. At the same date Gorucpoor Proper contained 363,672 puckа (or large begas) in cultivation, assessed at 7,92,205 rupees, or two and three-sixteenths rupees per bega; 768,272 begas fit for cultivation, and 569,986 of waste.

This territory is said to have been in a flourishing condition during the long reign of the Emperor Acber, and to have continued so under the nabobs of Oude until the defeat of Shuja ud Dowlah at Buxar, after which, owing to the efforts of the rajas and zemindars to render themselves independent, much confusion ensued, and a consequent suspension of cultivation. The first and second ranges of hills extend in a westerly direction from the district, so that the hot winds are scarcely felt in the northern parts. Easterly winds prevail generally throughout the year, and even during the warm season the nights and mornings are cool and pleasant. The climate, however, is not generally favourable to health, on account of the great extent of jungle and stagnant water, over which the easterly wind must make its approach. The ratio of the cultivated to the uncultivated land is remark-

ably disproportionate. In 1814, the superintendent of police reported that the whole tract north of the capital was waste and almost uninhabited, and the efficiency of the police merely nominal, as some of the thannahs (stations) comprehended a space of 1,600 square miles. These forests in ancient times have often been the refuge of governors, princes, and pretenders who had unsuccessfully raised the standard of rebellion, and in modern times have been abandoned to the wild elephants and other unclaimed animals. The former, although of an inferior quality, are caught by the natives, but not in herds, as is practised in Silhet, Tiperah, and Chittagong. In general they are seized either singly in pits, or are decoyed by the intervention of female elephants, in both of which processes many are killed, and still more maimed.

At some seasons of the year the second range of hills is visible from the town of Gorucpoor under an angle of forty degrees. The height of this range above the plains of the zillah is 4,000 feet; that of the first range 2,100 feet. At the base of the last is the Terriani, or low country, intersected by many streams which issue from the hills, and afterwards fall into the Rapty, a river of secondary magnitude. The great forest, which commences near the capital, extends as far as the first range of hills. It varies considerably in breadth, and in some places is so open as to admit with ease the passage of elephants, while in others it is scarcely to be penetrated by a human creature. In this forest, and the rank grass jungle connected with it, game of all description abounds. Among the quadrupeds, elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, bears, and buffaloes may be enumerated; and among the winged, the beautiful and high-flavoured florican, the *otis houbara* of Linnæus. The Terriani fever, at all times dangerous, is more particularly so in the months of May and June, and usually proceeds to its termination, good or bad, with great rapidity. By the natives it is ascribed to the water, but it probably results from a combination of noxious qualities in the air, water, and soil.

The Gorucpoor district came into the possession of the British in 1801, when it was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in commutation of subsidy, and in 1813 its jumma or assessment to the land revenue amounted to 17,75,377 rupees; but from the great extent of jungle in Goruicpoor Proper it cannot be fit for permanency in the revenue settlement in less than half a century. In 1815, during the Nepaulese war, with the view of increasing the population, arrangements were made for settling within its limits a class of persons named Tharoos, and such other hill natives as might seek an asylum within the British territories. Early in that year one of the chief Tharoos reported to the collector that about 3,000 of his tribe were assembled in a mangoe grove at Cumareeah, a village situated in the Seetassee jungles, belonging to the Ranny of Gudgepoor, and that more were expected. In deliberating on this measure, it was thought that the aggregation of the Tharoos into communities would be more agreeable to them than being scattered in small numbers among strangers, and that as their habits were understood to be industrious and pacific, no motive for their dispersion, or for wishing them to merge into the mass of the surrounding population, appeared to exist. On the contrary, it was thought that the preservation of their distinct and original habits, which enabled them to resist the pestiferous atmosphere of the jungles, might be turned to good account in some future hostile emergency.

It was therefore determined to assign them tracts of waste land, of which there was abundance; but the Tharoos objected to such as were too near the hills, where they would be continually under apprehensions of an attack from their former masters, the Gorkhas. In consequence of the delays attendant on every similar

measure, great sickness, and heavy rains, many of the Tharoos who had been collected dispersed: but prior to the 19th July 1816 above 2,000 Tharoos had erected huts and commenced cultivation in the Seetassee jungles, money having been advanced to them by government to procure seed and cattle, and a certain quantity of rice supplied for their immediate subsistence. After the conclusion of the Pindary war, a colony of a more questionable character was established; Kurreem Khan, a celebrated leader of that banditti, his nephew and adopted son, with some of their followers, having had lands assigned to them in Goruckpoor equivalent to a revenue of 1,000 rupees per month.

Under these circumstances, and on account of its local contiguity to two independent states (Oude and Nepaul), the Goruckpoor district appears too extensive for the maintenance of an efficient police. In 1814 most of the desperate robberies perpetrated in this district were ascribed to a race of people named Seeal Murwahs, or Geeder Mars (jackal hunters), who were robbers by profession, resembling in every respect the Buddicks of the Agra province. These plunderers have no fixed habitations, but mostly frequent the Oude dominions, as best adapted for their operations. —(*J. Ahmuty, the Marquess of Hastings, Capt. Stoneham, Blunt, &c.*)

Goruckpoor.—A town in the province of Oude, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the east side of the Rapty, 145 miles N.W. from Patna; lat. 26° 46′ N., lon. 83° 19′ E. In the western suburb is a mundib, or temple of Goracnath, a deity in high repute amongst the Hindoos of these quarters.

Gosaulty.—A considerable town in the province of Agra, watered by canals drawn from the Lasswaree river; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 76° 51′ E., thirty-seven miles N.W. from Bhurtpoor. Six miles west of the town a new fort has been erected by the

Gota.—A town in the province and district of Bejapoor, twenty-three miles travelling distance S.W. from the city of that name. This place, which is unnoticed in any map, is surrounded by a well-built stone wall, and has altogether a respectable appearance.

Goundul.—A central town in the Gujerat peninsula, thirty-seven miles N.N.E. from Junaghur; lat. 21° 54′ N., lon. 70° 58′ E. This was formerly a small village belonging to the government of Soreth, and most of the territory now possessed by the chiefs of Goundul was acquired from the nabobs of Junaghur, as remuneration for pecuniary assistance. In 1809 the Goundul chief was fined by Colonel Walker for encouraging the depredations of the Catties, and conniving at the infanticide of his son's daughter.—(*Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Gour (*Gaur*).—The ruins of Gour, the ancient capital of Bengal, are situated in the district of Dinagepoor, a few miles to the south of Malda, and are now mostly overwhelmed with reeds, and the trees of old fruit gardens become wild, and intermixed with palms. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows. "Jennetabad (the Mahomedan name for Gour) is a very ancient city, and was once the capital of Bengal. Formerly it was called Lucknowty (Lakshmanavati), and sometimes Gour. The present name of Jennetabad (the abode of paradise) was given it by the late emperor Humayoon. Here is a fine fort, to the east of which is a fine lake called Chutteah Putteah, in which are many islands."

The ruins of this town extend along the banks of the old Ganges, and probably occupy a space of twenty square miles, which, considering the straggling manner in which Indian cities are usually built, would not contain any very enormous population. Several villages now stand on its site, and eight market-places,

have been estimated to contain 3,000 houses, many of which are of brick, procured from the debris of the ancient city. Some progress has also been made in bringing the surface under cultivation: but the undertaking is much impeded by the great number of dirty tanks, swarming with alligators, musquetoes, and all sorts of vermin, and choked up with pestilential vapours. The soil is of extraordinary fertility, and well suited for the mango and mulberry. The principal ruins are a mosque built of a black stone, called by former visitors marble, but by Dr Francis Buchanan considered to be black hornblende, or indurated potstone, as he could not discover one piece of marble, either of the calcareous or of the harder kind. The bricks, which are most solidly composed, have been sold and carried away to Malda and the neighbouring towns on the Mahananda, and even Moorshedabad has been supplied with bricks from this mass. There are (1819) several other mosques besides the above, in tolerable preservation, and one of them is distinguished by a keblah, and corresponding niches of hornblende, curiously sculptured. The tower, delineated by Daniell, still exists, and two of the gates (the Cutwal and the Dakhel, especially the latter) are highly picturesque and venerable ruins. It is obvious, from a variety of circumstances, that a still more ancient city furnished materials for the construction of some of the Mahomedan buildings, whose vestiges may still be discovered, for defaced images of Hindoo deities have been found sculptured in relief on the reverse faces of many of the hornblende blocks, separated from the masses of masonry with which they were once connected.

The situation of Gour is nearly central to the populous parts of Bengal and Bahar, and not far from the junction of the principal rivers which form the admirable inland navigation. Lying to the east of the Ganges, it was secured from any sudden invasion from the only quarter whence hostile operations might be apprehended. No part of the site of ancient Gour is nearer to the present bank of the Ganges than four miles and a half, and some spots which were originally washed by that river, are now twelve miles from it. The name of Gour is apparently derived from Goor, which, both in the ancient and modern languages of India, signifies raw sugar, and from the Sanscrit term for manufactured sugar (sarcara) are derived the Persian, Greek, Latin, and modern European names of the cane and its produce. Gaura, or, as it is commonly called, Bengalese, is the language spoken in the country of which the ancient city of Gour was the capital, and still prevails in all the districts of Bengal, except some tracts on the frontier, but it is spoken in the greatest purity through the eastern or Dacca division of the province.

At a most early period of antiquity this place is said to have been the residence of a saint named Jannu, who one day swallowed the Ganges, as Bhaghiruthi was bringing it down from the mountains to water Bengal; since then there has always existed here a path to the infernal regions, the mouth of which may still be seen at Sheebgunge. Tradition also asserts that subsequent to this remarkable event Janmejaya, the son of Parikhit, the son of Abhimanyu, the son of Arjun, the brother of Judhisteer, and third king of India of the family of Pandoo, removed all the Brahmins, and settled them to the west of the Ganges beyond Hastinapoor, where their descendants still remain.

When Adisur erected a dynasty which governed Bengal, although he resided mostly at Soonergong, near Dacca, he had a house in Gour, then probably near the western extremity of his dominions. The same arrangement continued during the reign of his successor, Bollal Sen. His son, Lakshman, extended his possessions far to the north-west, made Gour his capital, and seems to have built the town of Gour, usually designated by that name, but also known by that of

Lakshnanavati, corrupted by the Mahomedans to Lucknowty.

When Mahomed Bukhtyar Khillijee conquered Bengal in A.D. 1204, Gour was a place of vast extent, and being selected by that commander for his chief station, soon attained a still greater magnitude. The last Hindoo sovereign, named Raja Lakshmaniyah, held his court at Nuddea, until expelled by the followers of the Arabian prophet, and probably retired to the old eastern capital at Soonergong. On the establishment of a Mahomedan dynasty independent of Delhi, the seat of government was transferred to Purneah; on which event Gour appears to have suffered indiscriminate dilapidation. In A.D. 1535 the emperor Humayoon, when in pursuit of Shere Khan, the Patan (by whom he was subsequently expelled), took Gour, then described as the capital of Bengal. Ferishta says that the seat of government was afterward removed to Tanda, or Tangra, a few miles higher up, since which period, although the city does not appear to have sustained any signal calamity, it has progressively declined to its present state of desolation.—(*F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Fullarton, Col. Colebrooke, Stewart, &c.*)

Gourbear.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles S.W. from Banda, lat. 25° 18′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E.

Gourpessara.—A small village belonging to Nepaul, with a large tank, situated about ten miles from the British boundary near the Bera river, and thirty-eight miles south from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 10′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E.

Govindgunge (*Govindaganj*).—A large mart and ferry in the province of Bahar, district of Churparun, situated on the banks of the Gunduck river; lat. 26° 29′ N.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Gowghaut.—A village in the province and district of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Jumna, now almost deserted, but still noted for the ruins of a spacious serai, twelve miles N.W. by W. fr[om t]he city of Agra.

Grassias.—See Gujerat.

Gressic.—This was formerly the capital of an ancient kingdom in the island of Java, but is now merely a small town divided between the natives and the Chinese, who have here their own campong, temples, and priests, lat. 7° 9′ S., lon. 112° 50′ E., ten miles N.W. from Surabhaya. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the modern division of Gressic contained 115,442 inhabitants, of which number 364 were Chinese. Its area was only 778 square miles.—(*Raffles, &c.*)

Grobogang.—A district in the island of Java, which, according to a census taken by the British government in 1815, contained (including Jipang) 66,522 inhabitants, of which number 403 were Chinese. The area comprehended 1,219 square miles. The town of Grobogang stands in lat. 6° 58′ S., lon. 110° 50′ E., thirty miles east from Samarang.

In the plains of Grobogang, fifty miles N.E. from Solo, are some remarkable mud volcanoes, having at a distance the appearance of the surf breaking over the rocks. On approaching them an elevated plain of mud is perceived, about two miles in circumference, in the centre of which immense bodies of salt mud are thrown up to the height of ten or fifteen feet, in the shape of large globes or bubbles, of which there are two continually throwing up and bursting seven or eight times in a minute. As the globes burst they throw out the mud from the centre with a considerable noise; sometimes they throw up two or three tons of mud. The mud is cold at the surface, but said to be warm beneath. A quantity of salt is manufactured by the Javanese from the water that drains from the mud. In the Ramsam forest, which is in the neighbourhood, are a salt lake, a mud hillock, and various boiling or rather bubbling pools.—(*T. S. Goad, Raffles, &c.*)

GUALIOR.—A strong fortress in the province of Agra, the modern capital of Dowlet Row Sindia, about seventy miles direct distance south from the city of Agra; lat. 26°15′ N., lon. 78°1′ E. The hill on which it stands is in length one mile and three-fifths, but its greatest breadth does not exceed 300 yards. The height at the north end, where it is greatest, is 342 feet, and the sides are so steep as to be nearly perpendicular. A stone parapet extends all round, close to the brow of the hill, which is so precipitous that it was judged perfectly secure from assault, until Major Popham took it by escalade in 1780. The storming party was led by Captain Bruce, brother to the traveller. The town, which is placed along the east side of the hill, is large, well inhabited, and contains many good houses of stone, which is furnished in abundance by the neighbouring hills, forming an amphitheatre round the town and fort, at the distance of from one to four miles. These mountains are chiefly composed of schistus, which apparently contains a large portion of iron, their surface is rugged, and nearly destitute of vegetation. To the east runs the small river Soonrica (probably Suvarnarica), which in the beginning of spring is almost dry. At the distance of 700 yards from the northern extremity is a conical hill, having on the top a remarkable building, consisting of two stone pillars joined by an arch. Within the summit of the fort are large natural excavations, which contain a never-failing supply of excellent water.

Gualior must in all ages have been a military post of great importance, both from its central position in Upper Hindostan, and the peculiarity of its formation, which rendered it, according to the opinion of the natives, impregnable. During the existence of the Mogul empire it was a state prison, where the obnoxious branches of the royal family were confined, and a large menagerie, consisting of lions, tigers, and other wild beasts, was kept for their amusement. When possessed by Madhajee Sindia, he appropriated it to the same use, and on account of its strength made it a grand depôt for artillery, ammunition, and military stores.

Rajas of Gualior are mentioned so early as A.D. 1008, and it was first captured by the Mahomedans in 1197, after a long siege. The Hindoos appear afterwards to have regained possession, as it was again subdued in 1235 by Altumsh, the Patan sovereign of Delhi. In 1519 Gualior surrendered to Ibrahim Lodi, the last Patan emperor of Delhi, after having been possessed 100 years by the Hindoos, and subsequent to this period it must have been acquired by the emperor Acber, or his son Humayoon, for in 1543 we find it was delivered up by his governor to Shere Khan, the Afghan. Thus it would seem, notwithstanding its reputed impregnability, to have very frequently changed masters.

After the dismemberment of the Mogul empire, Gualior came into the possession of the Rana of Gohud, from whom it was taken by the Maharattas. In 1780 it was taken by escalade by a detachment under Major Popham, but was afterwards delivered to the Rana of Gohud: who, failing in his engagements, was abandoned to the resentment of the Maharattas. Madhajee Sindia invested the fort, and after a fruitless siege of many months, prevailed at last in 1784 by corrupting the garrison. In 1804 Raja Ambajee Inglia engaged by treaty to deliver up the fortress of Gualior, then in his possession, in consideration of obtaining favourable consideration from the British government. When the period for its surrender arrived, the commandant, clandestinely instigated by Ambajee, refused to deliver it up. It was in consequence invested by a detachment under Sir Henry White, batteries opened against the fort, and on the 4th February, a practical breach having been effected, the garrison made overtures to surrender on condition of receiving 50,000 rupees. This proposal was rejected,

but an arrangement having been subsequently effected, the British troops obtained possession of the fort on the 5th February 1804. The British government having abandoned all territory south of the Chumbul, by the final treaty with Sindia of 1805, Gualior came into that chief's possession, who, up to 1810, was generally in motion with the greater part of his army, Oojein being little more than nominally his capital. But shortly after the forced resumption of Gualior from the family of the deceased Ambajee, he pitched his camp a short distance south-west of the fortress, which he entered himself, and his court has never been moved from that spot except on occasional pilgrimages. A second and external city has arisen on the site of his encampment, surpassing the old one in magnitude and population. In 1820 the soubah of, or territory attached to Gualior, was by far the most productive portion of Sindia's dominions, for the long time his army had been quartered there had reduced the innumerable ghurries and strong-holds, and brought the tract under complete subjection, but even the revenue was collected with the assistance of a flying detachment.

Travelling distance from Delhi, 197 miles; from Lucknow, 211; from Benares, 355; from Nagpoor, 380, from Calcutta by Birboom, 805 miles.—(*Public MS Documents, Hunter, Maurice, Major William Hamilton, Rennell, Capt J Stewart, &c*)

GUCKERS.—A tribe in the province of Lahore,* well known to history from the incessant trouble they used to occasion both to the Patan and Mogul emperors of Hindostan They once possessed the whole country between the Indus and the Jhylum or Hydaspes, but have latterly been expelled by the Seiks. They still, however, retain a high military reputation. The Gucker country produces vast quantities of grapes, which there grow wild, and droves of horses of a tolerably good breed are pastured To the south-east the land is much cut up with deep ravines and torrent courses, and it is altogether a strong country, and very difficult to march through. The floods are so sudden and copious, that the water has been known to rise ten feet within a minute of time; so that one portion of an army may almost be instantaneously separated from the rest. The chief of the Guckers takes the title of sultan, but the place of his domicile has never yet been satisfactorily ascertained. A great many of the Gucker towns have been destroyed by the Seiks, and now lie in ruins.—(*Elphinstone, &c*)

GUDWALL.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-four miles N W. from Adoni; lat. 16° 11′ N., lon 77° 48′ E.

GUGAH—A town in the province of Mooltan, ten miles west from the city of Tatta, which in 1809 contained about 600 inhabitants, lat 24° 45′ N, lon 68° 7′ E

GUICOWAR.—See BARODA.

GUIMARAS ISLE—A small island in the Eastern seas, one of the Philippines, about eighteen miles in circumference, lying off the south-eastern extremity of the island of Jama, being the most easterly of the Philippines

GUJERAT PENINSULA—This territory is situated principally between the 21st and 23d degrees of north latitude, and occupies the south-western extremity of the province, to the main land of which it is joined by an isthmus To the north it is bounded by the gulf of Cutch and the Run, on the south and west by the Indian ocean, and on the east by the latter and the gulf of Cambay. In length from east to west it may be estimated at 190 miles, by 110 the average breadth. The general name of Cattywar for the Gujerat peninsula was applied by the Maharattas, having probably been first opposed there by the Catties, whose active and roving disposition gave them the appearance of greater numbers than the reality justified. At present the

principal geographical and political subdivisions are the following, viz. 1. Cattywar; 2. Jhalawar; 3. Hallaur; 4. Okamundel; 5. Burudda; 6. Babreawar; 7. Goelwar; 8. Arratum. And the chief towns and petty states are Noanuggur, Bate, Juggeth or Dwaraca, Poorbunder, Soreth or Junaghur, Diu, Durangdra, Goundul, Bhownuggur, Gogo, and Palyad.

The largest river in this peninsula is the Bhadur, which falls into the sea fifteen miles south of Poorbunder, after a course of above 100 miles including the windings. During the monsoon small boats navigate it as far as Kattiana, eighteen miles from its mouth. Next to the Bhadur is the Muchoo river, which has a rocky channel, and after a direct course of about sixty-five miles disembogues itself by many channels into the Runn. In the bed of the Ajee river, which falls into the gulf of Cutch near Balumba, small quantities of gold-dust are found. The Sutrunje has its source on the western side of the hills that form the Junaghur cluster, and joins the sea near Tullaja. All these rivers receive a great many tributary streams and streamlets (according to the natives the Bhadur receives ninety-nine), the whole peninsula being remarkably intersected with excellent and clear-running waters, and their banks occasionally presenting picturesque scenes of romantic beauty. Many of these have poetical names, such as the Roopa Rete, silver waves; the Pooljee, studded with flowers; and Nague or serpentine.

The mountains here are few, and of no remarkable elevation. Cholula is noted for the wildness of its appearance and the barbarity of its inhabitants, and the mountain of Pulletana, in Goelwar, for the Shrawuck temples on its summit. The loftiest of the Junagh[illegible] hills (named in Sanscrit Rewtachil) is sacred, and surrounded by others of a smaller size with vallies intervening. The Burudda hills consist of a clump near Poorbunder, extending from Goomlee on the north to Kudorna on the southern extreme, about twenty miles. All the clusters of hills abovementioned send off spurs and branches in various directions, while other hills stand in plains detached and insulated. The whole peninsula swarms with places of worship and reputed sanctity, among which may be enumerated Dwaraca, Bate, Somnauth, and Gernal. In some parts hot winds prevail in May and June, but the general climate may be considered dry and healthy, with a westerly wind all the fair season. In December and January there are east and north-east winds, with remarkably dense fogs that disperse at sunrise.

The following are the principal classes into which the inhabitants of the Gujerat peninsula may be subdivided: 1. Rajpoots, such as the Jahrejahs, Jhalla, Goei, and Jetwah. 2. Catties, of which there are three principal families, the Walla, Khachur, and Khooman; 3. Coolies, Kauts, and Sindees, called also Buwars. 4. Koonbies, Mhars, Aheers, Rehbaries, and other industrious tribes. The Bhatts are more immediately connected with the Rajpoots, and the Charons with the Catties.

A great majority of the petty chiefs of this country are of the Jahrejah tribe, conjectured to have originally come from Persia through Sinde, whence they were probably expelled by the early invasion of the caliphs. As it is, the Jahrejahs, Catties, and many other tribes calling themselves Hindoos, are but very superficially instructed in the doctrines of their own faith, and their claim to be considered within the Brahminical pale but very slender, although they profess belief in all the Brahminical legends. The sun and the Matha Assapuri are, in fact, the real objects of their worship; their tenets with respect to purity and impurity by no means rigid; and they drink spirits in public. Under the title of Matha Assapuri they venerate the goddess of nature, named also Hinglais Bhavani, to whom in Cutch the Jahrejahs have erected a temple named Assapuri, where a buffaloe is annually

immolated. The name of Jahrejah is ascribed to the origin of the four Yadoos who escaped from the battles of Krishna, and were protected by Hinglais Bhavani.

Among the chiefs of the Jahrejah tribes, the remarkable and inhuman custom of female infanticide universally prevailed, until they were induced by the interference of the British government to put a stop, at least in appearance, to the practice, none of the prior governments that attained an ascendancy in India having ever attempted to suppress the custom. For its prevalence various causes have been assigned. Pride, avarice, the cares of a family, the disgrace attending female misconduct, the difficulty of procuring them suitable establishments, and the apprehension of exposing them to inhuman treatment, all these motives combined have influenced the Jahrejahs to perpetuate the practice of female infanticide The Jahrejahs, however, were not singular in this, as the custom has also been discovered to exist among the Rhatore Rajpoots of Marwar and Ajmeer, and the perpetration of the same crime has been traced to the Jauts, to a Mewatty race of Mahomedans, to the Hari tribe of Boondee and Kotah, the Wanah, the Cutchwa, and to the Rajpoot tribes generally. Indeed, the birth of a daughter is by most sects of Hindoos considered an unauspicious event, and rarely marked by festivity or exultation.

The Jahrejahs carefully select wives from the most respectable Rajpoot families, but prefer those of the Jhallas, sprung from the Goel, Churassana, Punnar, Surweyo, Jaetwa, Walia, and Wadal tribes. Such daughters as they preserve, they give in marriage to these castes; illegitimate daughters are bestowed on Mahomedans, or on Hindoos of impure caste indifferently, on which account the latter are not put to death like the other. It is remarkable that the concubines frequently burn themselves with the deceased Jahrejahs, which is rarely done by their wives. When Row Lacka, grandfather to the present chief of Cutch, died, fifteen concubines burned at his funeral pile, but not one of his wives performed that sacrifice, although there is no law against it. Of these concubines two were Mahomedans, one a Siddee, and the rest Hindoos of different castes. This painful ceremony is less expected from the wives than from the concubines, who frequently consider it a point of honour to burn with their deceased lords, each inspired with the dreadful emulation of becoming the first victim. It may be necessary here to correct an opinion entertained by many Europeans, that these sacrifices are compulsory. The Jahrejah's wives and concubines are at liberty to follow this custom or abstain from it, neither disgrace or opprobium attaching to those who choose to survive. It may be mentioned as another extraordinary deviation from Hindoo customs, that in the district of Hulwud, the wives of the lowest castes invariably burn with their husbands.

Through the persevering exertions of Mr. Duncan, then governor of Bombay, and of Colonel Walker, commanding the detachment in Cattywar, the Jahrejahs were at length induced to sign a paper, agreeing to abolish the practice of female infanticide, which document comprehended within its obligations all the chieftains and leaders of any consequence within the Gujerat peninsula; but the crime itself is one of which it is extremely difficult to obtain direct proof. According to native testimony, when a woman is taken in labour, a large pot of milk is placed in the room, into which, if the birth be a female, it is immediately plunged and suffocated. One estimate, in 1807, stated the number of female infanticides throughout the whole peninsula to be 5,000 annually, while another raised it to 30,000; both founded on very uncertain data, and it seems probable, that although reduced in frequency, it is still practiced; the sentiments of nature and humanity having so long been stifled by the

passions of avarice and pride that the right of destroying their daughters became a privilege, and regarded as a dignified distinction of caste.

In 1812 Witul Row, the Guicowar's chief functionary in the peninsula, in hopes of satisfying the anxiety of the British government, established mehtahs or scribes, in the principal Jahrejah towns, with instructions to communicate the birth, preservation and murder of female children as soon as they received information of these occurrences; but the jealousy with which these men were regarded rendered their exertions nugatory, and so long as no Jahrejah would himself communicate the condition of his wife, they found it in vain to seek for information from any of his neighbours; indeed, it would require very extraordinary exertions to arrive at the knowledge of the domestic transactions of 5,000 families, particularly interested in their concealment. In India no man will without a reward accuse another of an act considered a crime by the ruling power, but which is looked on by themselves and their countrymen, not only without horror, but with approbation; and if by accident they did inform, their motives might be traced much oftener to a spirit of revenge than any sense of justice. This observation applies to the natives of Hindostan generally, but more especially to those among them who practice the cruel religious observances which require mystery and concealment to impose on the ignorant an impressive notion of their sanctity. No native, therefore, unless urged by a deep-rooted enmity, will accuse another of an action deemed criminal by the ruling power, but, bearing among them the appearance of preternatural approbation, and reported as a custom of the caste from the fabulous ages.

Although no direct evidence had been afforded of any Jahrejah having destroyed his offspring since his engagement to abandon the practice, still, as the preservation up to 1816 of only fifteen females could be vouched for, a strong suspicion remains that the perpetration of female infanticide in this quarter has not yet been eradicated. To the universality of the custom the Raja of Moorvee may be mentioned as an honourable exception, he having strictly adhered to his engagement, and reared his two female children. In that year the resident at Baroda suggested to the Bombay government, that it would tend greatly to accelerate the extinction of the practice if the East-India Company would defray or assist the expenses of their nuptials; but this proposal, on account of the strong injunctions to economy biennially received from the Court of Directors by that presidency, was declined. The expense estimated for marrying the daughters of the different Cattywar chieftains was as follows. The daughter of the Jam of Noanagur, 35,000 rupees; of an inferior raja, such as Moorvee Goundul or Rajcote, 15,000; a near relative of the last, 7,000 rupees; and the marriage of a poor Jahrejah's daughter, from 1,000 to 1,500 rupees.

Throughout a large proportion of the Gujerat peninsula the country is subdivided into bhyauds or brotherhoods, under which term are comprehended the relations of the rajas, who have villages assigned for their maintenance, which on failure of heirs revert to the chief. The possessors of these villages are the Bhyaud, or fraternity of the principal chiefs. In this state of family connexion the Rajpoot tribes are distinguished by a great degree of personal independence, and all assert the right of revenging personal wrongs, real or imaginary. The number of small fortresses with which the country is overspread, and the want of artillery, renders it easy for a fugitive to obtain an asylum from whence he may infest his enemies. When a compromise ensues cocoomba is drunk together by the contending chieftains; this potion being here, as in Cutch, considered to cause oblivion of the past and reconciliation for the future. Under these circumstances, it is fortunate, in the absence of a

stable government, that the influence of religion, or rather superstition, has some effect in restraining their turbulent propensities. The veneration in which the Bhatts are held, and the inviolability of their persons, are assented to by the most uncivilized, and were repeatedly brought into action during the negociations of the British government with the different chieftains of the Gujerat peninsula in 1809.

Prior to 1807, the whole of this territory had for many years been tributary to the Guicowar; but the revenue derived was altogether precarious, and could never be realized without the periodical advance of an army. By this mode of procedure both parties suffered extremely; the country being annually ravaged, the revenues dissipated, and the society excited to a state of such commotion as threatened to disturb the peace of the neighbouring provinces. The Guicowar in this emergency having requested the mediation of the British government, a detachment from the Bombay army, under Col. Walker, was marched into Cattywar, which restored tranquility, arranged a perpetual settlement of the tribute, and imposed fines on the predatory and piratical states. In 1818, after the fall of the Peshwa, the farm of Ahmedabad was tendered to the Guicowar in lieu of the above tribute, which being accepted, the management of this turbulent peninsula devolved wholly on the British government. In 1820 only one instance of piracy occurred, which was discovered and punished: furnishing decided evidence of the salutary influence exercised over its uncivilized chiefs, who are now recovering from the miserable condition to which they had been reduced by the tyranny and undue exactions of the Guicowar's officers, and the famine of 1813.—(*Walker, Macmurdo, Carnac, Elphinstone, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

THE PROVINCE OF GUJERAT.

(Gurjara Rashtra.)

This large province is principally situated between the twenty-first and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the province of Ajmeer; on the south by the sea and the province of Aurungabad; to the east it has Malwa and Candeish; and to the west portions of Mooltan, Cutch, and the sea. In length it may be estimated at 300 miles, by 180 the average breadth. The south-western extremity approaches the shape of a peninsula, formed by the gulfs of Cutch, Cambay and the Indian ocean, which is insulated for a short time during the rains. When the institutes of Acber were formed by Abul Fazel in 1582, Gujerat extended southward to Damaun, where it touched on Baglana, and within its ill-defined limits appears to have included the greater part of Candeish and Malwa. In more recent times the principal territorial and political subdivisons commencing from the west and north were the following:

1. Puttenwara.	8. Cherooter.
2. Jutwar.	9. Ahmedabad
3. Gujerat peninsula.	10. Baroda.
4. Chowal.	11. Broach.
5. Ederwara.	12. Nandode.
6. Wagur.	13. Surat.
7. Chumpaneer.	14. Attaveesee.

The mountains that bound Gujerat to the north and east are steep, craggy, and of difficult access, and send out many spurs or branches, the intervals between which are nearly filled up with jungle. Further south the hills terminate; the jungle becomes less universal, while the rivers increase in size and number, and their banks broken by deep intricate ravines overgrown with thick jungle. All these obstacles diminish as the south is approached, where the forest disappears, and the streams unite into the Sabermatty and Mahy. Nearly the whole of the south-west of Gujerat, a tract sixty miles deep, and extending 150 miles along the gulf of Cambay, the frontier of Cattywar, and the Runn, is an open fertile plain. This plain was almost wholly subdued by the Maharattas, though the jungles of Chowal and of the Mahy river nearly

as far south as Baroda, still furnish shelter for independent Cooly villages. The western boundary, along the Banass river, is in some parts a level arid country, and in others a low salt swamp resembling the Runn. Within these swamps, jungles, and mountains there formerly dwelt many tribes of professed thieves, who preyed on each other and on the civilized districts, and being mostly mounted, extended their depredations to a great distance.

Gujerat is traversed by several noble rivers, such as the Nerbudda, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermatty, but in particular tracts a great scarcity of water is experienced. In the sandy soil north of the Mahy, which soon absorbs the periodical rains, the wells are deeper than further south, being from eighty to 100 feet deep. In the adjacent province of Ajmeer, however, they are still deeper, the inhabitants being obliged to descend 300 feet before they reach a sufficient supply of water. In some particular portions of this province, for many square miles not a stone is to be met with; while in others, but not many, nothing else is to be seen. The principal seaports are Surat, Broach, Cambay, Bhownugger, and Jumbooseer.

The Gujerat province generally, notwithstanding its apparent smoothness to the eye, is much intersected by ravines and by ground broken up by the rains. Some of these chasms are of considerable depth and extent, and during the wet monsoon suddenly assume the appearance and volume of rapid rivers, not to be crossed without the assistance of rafts or boats, so that one portion of an army may be almost instantaneously separated from the other. During the hot and dry months the surface of the country mostly appears sand or dust, and in the rainy season a thick mire. The fields in general, except for particular crops, do not require much manure; that used by the peasantry is chiefly the dung of animals and the refuse of the cow-house, to which may be added the remains of the cocoa-nut, after the oil is expressed. The natural productions are the same as those of other tropical countries, among which may be enumerated horses, excellent bullocks, and draught cattle, coarse cloths, saltpetre, hemp, indigo, and opium. The last, however, has never been much cultivated, the province having been usually supplied from Malwa. In the northern tracts of Gujerat the natives indulge to excess in the use of this pernicious drug, and the propensity can only be checked by raising the price beyond their means of frequent payment. The districts directly subordinate to the British in Gujerat are susceptible of great improvements; but these could not be even commenced until the authority of the government was completely established, the accomplishment of which has been greatly retarded by their local position, having until lately been surrounded and intermixed with the more extensive territories of the Peshwa and Guicowar.

In so vast a province, never completely subdued by any invader, a great diversity of population may be expected, and accordingly Gujerat still exhibits a wonderfully strange assemblage of sects and castes, some of whose usages may as well be recorded, as they will probably be hereafter but of transient duration.

In some parts of the province the Grassias are a numerous class of landholders, in others they merely possess a sort of feudal authority over certain portions of land and villages. Neither the original source or precise commencement of the Grassia claims have ever been satisfactorily traced; and the etymological explanation has been resorted to with as little success. According to some Hindoo pundits, *gyrasse* is a term signifying a mouthful, bit, or small portion, and equally applicable whether the bounty given be voluntary or extorted. On this subject the Mahomedans make a bad pun, and say the term is composed of *ghyre* (without), and *rast* (right). Others think the phrase originates from ghauss (grass), allusive to the appearance of extreme indi-

gance and distress which a subject sometimes assumes in the presence of his ruler, by standing before him with a bunch of grass in his mouth.

Whatever be the original derivation of the word, these Grassias have not, as has been supposed, the slightest claim to the distinction of a tribe or caste; nor could they, from the great variety of individuals, ever be formed into one. Grassias are of many different tribes of Hindoos: some are Mahomedans, and any person purchasing the claims, or lending money, or farming lands and collections, would, even if a Parsee or Christian, come equally under the denomination of Grassia, which is also extended to all the mercenaries employed by the principal to inspire terror or inflict injury. The records of antiquity furnish no confirmation of the justice of these complicated demands, and the Ayeen Acbery, or institutes of the emperor Acber, being wholly silent on the subject of claims, now so formidable to the public peace and revenue, it may be safely concluded that they did not exist at the date of that laborious compilation, otherwise they never would have been passed unnoticed in a work, composed for the express purpose of exhibiting the existing condition of the empire.

The common and traditionary report of these claims is, that subsequent to the decease of the emperor Acber, in A.D 1605, the Gujerat province was so infested by the incursions of the Bheels and robbers from the hills and jungles, that the nabobs of Surat, in the reign of Ferokhsere, submitted to a compromise, and ceded certain lands to them in each village. These surrenders are said to have been denominated "vanta" grounds, and exempted from taxation by the Mogul government, but afterwards subjected to a quit-rent by Damajee Guicowar, when he conquered Gujerat. It is also asserted, that depredations after this still continuing, the zemindars pursued the same weak policy; and to satisfy fresh invaders, and gratify the avarice of the old, agreed to the payment of what is now called "toda," or ready money.

These vanta lands and toda gyraus have been continually increasing during the anarchy that so long prevailed in Gujerat, and by the persevering encroachments from all sides, the corruption of the native revenue officers, and the necessities of the landholders, much government property was, in these forms, alienated and mortgaged, and every subsequent contingency or imposition was consolidated under the general name of toda gyrauss. With the Grassias it has always been an immutable axiom, that a claim once received never becomes defunct; and at this day the Balasur pergunnah pays an item of thirty rupees, on account of a charitable attention once bestowed by a humane banyan on the wife of a Grassia, who was suddenly taken in labour at his door; and many other spurious charges are annually collected, under an infinite variety of names.

Proprietors of such claims, and more especially of toda gyrauss, seldom prosecute them in person; but having retired to some secluded residence, such as Rajpeepla and Mandavie, they proclaim themselves chieftains, and rally adventurers around them, to whom they sometimes farm out the grassia demand, or depute them to levy it. Thus qualified, the adventurer enlists a banditti of every caste and country, with the intention of making money honestly, if circumstances favour him, but at all events, of making money. In the course of his operations the zemindars are bribed or bullied into new surrenders, the government revenue is misappropriated, its subjects mutilated, and the country devastated. These inroads, vexatious as they are, are perplexed and aggravated by the family feuds of the Grassias, whose claims are subdivided into minute shares, and so contradictory the one to the other, that the cultivatórs are quite uncertain which is the true and which the false claimant; but all are equally compelled by these incendiaries to propitiate their forbearance by contributions of food

and money. Until recently, any proposals made by government to liquidate all these claims, by payment of a fixed sum annually, were always rejected, the Grassias preferring a fluctuating revenue, with the military pomp it confers, to a certain one without it. It occasionally happens, also, that these demands lie so long dormant that the extinction of the claimants is concluded, when suddenly an heir, real or fictitious, enforces his pretensions by conflagration and murder. Indeed, so complicated are these claims, and so anarchical the system of collection, that the British revenue officers have never been able to arrange any thing approaching to an accurate list of them, from which their justice or injustice might be inferred.

A large proportion of these Grassias, who thus infested the British territories, were resident in the adjoining countries, then belonging to the Peshwa and Guicowar, and more especially the divisions of Rajpeepla and Attaveesy, Mandavie north of the Nerbudda, Meagaum and Ahmode, between that stream and the Mahy, and Mandowee on the Tuptee. On the rugged margins of the Gujerat rivers many Grassias still reside in a kind of independence, and also over the Gujerat peninsula, usually denominated Cattywar by the natives. Criminals from the plains fly to their haunts for refuge, and receive the names of Grassias, Catties, Coolies, Bheels, and Mewassies, but are in reality thieves, and so numerous, that formerly they were estimated to compose one-half of the population north of the Mahy river. The villages held by Coolies are in this quarter called Mewass; but this term applies properly to all refractory villages, whether held by Coolies, Rajpoots, or Bheels. Mewassie villages are generally situated in hilly or broken ground, surrounded by deep ravines, jungle, and of difficult access; for in India mere situation often decides the character of the natives, as obedient or predatory. Mewassie, in fact, is used for refractory, whether applied to Rajpoot or Coolie; but as all pretension to independence in a Cooly is reckoned usurpation, and not so in a Rajpoot, the term has been applied to the former in contradistinction to Grassia. Since 1814 the Bombay government has been strenuously endeavouring to effect an arrangement for paying the Grassia claims from the public treasury, and considerable progress is annually made in accomplishing this very desirable commutation.

Of all the plunderers who formerly infested, and still, but in a less degree, infest Gujerat, the most bloody and untameable are the Coolies, who, however, present different characters in different quarters, the most barbarous being in the vicinity of the Runn, or in the neighbourhood of the Mahy river. These were taught to despise every approach to civilization; and the usual appellation they bestowed on a man decently dressed, was pimp to a brothel. In order to procure respect, they stained their apparel with pounded charcoal mixed with oil, and their charons (priests and bards) and other influential persons surpassed the laity in filthiness. With this tribe cleanliness was considered indicative of cowardice. The Portuguese at an early period used the name of Coolie (or slave, in Persian) as a term of reproach, and from them it has descended in the same sense to the English. Besides Gujerat, Coolies are found in other parts of India, and more especially about the northern portion of the Western Ghauts, where they confine on the Bheels, whom they somewhat resemble, but are less predatory and more civilized. These inhabit part of the range to the south of Baglana, and the country at its base on the west, as far north as Bassein; but they are much more numerous in Gujerat.

The description of men named Bhatts or Bharotts, abound more in Gujerat than in any other province of India; and during the sway of the native powers, and even until recent times, possessed unbounded influence. Some few cultivate land, but the

greater number are recorders of births and deaths, beggars, and itinerant bards, in which last capacity they also frequently are traders. Some of this caste formerly stood security for the revenue, and guaranteed the observance of agreements and awards. They are a singularly obstinate race, and when pressed for money for which they have become security, sometimes sacrifice their own lives; but more frequently put to death some aged female, or a child of their family, in the presence of the person who caused them to break their word. A Bhatt, however, never becomes security for a person of whom he is ignorant. Under native rulers the Bhatts were a link that connected the wild Mewassy population with the government; every Grassia, Coolie, and Bheel chief having his Bhatt, whose intervention was then calculated to produce a salutary influence on minds callous to all impressions but those of superstition. These Bhatts were rewarded by a small per-centage on the amount of revenue for which they became security, and for the consequent protection it afforded against the extortions of the inferior agents of the governments, their persons being regarded as sacred, and their influence predominant over the minds of the natives.

The Charons are a sect of Hindoos, allied in manners and customs to the Bhatts. They are often possessed of large droves of carriage cattle, by means of which they carry on a distant inland traffic in grain and other articles.* Travellers in the wildest parts of Gujerat are protected by Brahmins and Charons, hired for the purpose. When a band of predatory horse appears, these sacred persons take an oath to die by their own hands in case their protégé is pillaged; and in such veneration are they held by these superstitious thieves, that in almost every case this threat is found effectually to restrain them.

Among those most benefited by the lax system of government that followed the death of Aurungzebe were the religious orders, such as the Bhatts and Charons, who, however, never enjoyed or exercised any pastoral influence, like that of the Brahmins. The legality of their acquisitions was never investigated, from the horror of their self-immolation, which they threatened if it were attempted. The system of Bhatt agency in revenue matters, strongly marked the distrust subsisting between tho Maharatta rulers and their subjects. If the one demanded of the Mewassies Bhatt security for the payment of the revenue, the other required a similar security from the government against its own oppression and extortion. The instrumentality of the Bhatts was consequently a useful and economical expedient to a feeble government, incapable, by legitimate means, of controlling and gradually civilizing its turbulent subjects; but was a clumsy machinery, that impeded the progress of a strong one. The Mewassies, from the time of the conquest, received the most injurious treatment from the Maharattas, who, having driven them to desperation, believed it impossible to reclaim them; and in reality always treated the Grassias, Coolies, and Bheels, like outcasts from society and beasts of the field.

But on the substitution of a government solicitous for the welfare of its subjects, and desirous of elevating these classes from a state of degradation to their proper station in the scale of human beings, a different result took place; and the Mewassies never demanded security from the British government against its own oppression, not being apprehensive of any. The annals, also, of all native history, from the Maharatta conquest, prove the inefficacy of severity, whether exercised by means of treachery, or by brute force, in reclaiming their evil propensities. In the more early stage of the British establishment in Gujerat, policy dictated the propriety of having recourse to every expedient for checking and keeping in order the unruly tribes, until such time as experience of its justice and energy should convince them that full reli-

ance might be placed on the first, and that the last was not to be resisted with impunity. The natural result of such wise and moderate policy has followed; and at present the Bhatts, once so important a race in this province, have become so insignificant as scarcely to deserve serious notice, while all the industrious and peaceable classes have advanced greatly in wealth, comfort, and security.

In Gujerat, as in other parts of Hindostan Proper, there are a race of people called Ungreas, whose profession is that of money-carriers, which is done by concealing it in their quilted cloths. Although miserably poor, one of them may be trusted to the value of 1,000 rupees, to carry many miles off, merely on the responsibility of his mirdha or superior, who frequently is not richer than the other. They are of all castes, and generally well armed and athletic. When performing distant journies, they assemble in parties, and fight with desperation to defend a property for which their recompense is a mere subsistence, and which, under other circumstances, they would readily steal. There is another set in the northern and western tracts, named Puggies, from their extraordinary expertness in tracing a thief by his steps. When necessary, the examination must be resorted to early in the morning, before the people have been moving about; when, such is their skill, that they seldom fail in pointing out the village where the thief has taken refuge.

The Dheras of this province are a caste similar to the Mhars of the Deccan and the Parias of Malabar. Their employment is to carry filth of every description out of the roads and villages and from their immediate vicinity. They scrape bare the bones of every animal that dies within their limits, and share out the flesh, which they cook in various ways, and feed on. They are also obliged by ancient custom to serve the state and travellers, as carriers of baggage to the nearest village from their own. They are guilty of many petty thefts, and much addicted to intoxication. Their gooroos or priests, named Garoodas, cook and devour carrion like the rest of the tribe; and, on account of their extreme degradation, dare not read the vedas or learn Sanscrit. They have abridgments of the mythological stories of the Puranas, written in the vernacular idiom on rolls of paper, ornamented with rude figures of the heroes of the Ramayuna, by the exhibition of which and the muttering of some charm, they pretend to cure diseases. In the Gujerat villages it is customary to make the Dheras, Halalkhors, and Bhungeas, who eat carrion, and the Bheels, who kill innocent animals, to live apart in huts by themselves. Although the British service in the Sepoy battalions offers an elevation to the young Dheras, from the most abject degradation to high wages and dignity of rank, there are extremely few instances of their ever availing themselves of it—indeed scarcely any; neither do they often become converts to the Arabian religion. The washermen are also considered so cruel, on account of the numerous deaths they involuntarily occasion to animalculæ in the process of washing, that they are likewise classed among the seven degraded and excluded professions.

In this quarter of India the term Koonbee is applied to the pure Sudra, or fourth caste, whatever his occupation may be, but who in Gujerat is generally a cultivator. In the Deccan this title distinguishes the cultivator from one who bears arms, and prefers being called a Maharatta. They most observe the Brahminical forms of worship; but the Gujeratee Koonbies in their diet abstain from all flesh and fish; whereas the Maharattas eat freely of mutton, poultry, fish, game, and every animal fit for food except the cow species. A Gujerat Koonbie will not willingly kill any animal, not even the most venemous snake. According to tradition the ancestors of the Koonbies, who are now the most numerous and industrious portion of the agricultural peasantry, were emigrants from

Ajmeer and Upper Hindostan. At present they are subdivided into three tribes, the Lewa, the Cudjwa, and the Arjanna. Formerly the Mahomedans of Gujerat engaged but little in agriculture or manufactures, addicting themselves mostly to traffic and a martial life; but since the extension of the British influence the latter profession has so much declined, that they are gradually resorting to the pacific arts of husbandry. Indeed, the present Mussulmauns are become quite an indolent and effeminate race of people.

The different Nyat, or families of Brahmins, are eighty-four, called after the places of their nativity or inheritance. Each has several subdivisions, the members of which although on an equality, are not permitted to intermarry, the minute distinctions being almost innumerable. Mr. Elphinstone is of opinion that the Rajpoots are strangers in Gujerat. Each tribe gives a separate account of its own settlement, but scarcely any at a remote period. They appear to have originally come from Mewar, Marwar, and the countries that we call Rajpootana. Some appear to have passed into Sinde, and returned by Cutch into Gujerat.

The Vaneeya (named Banyans by the English) are a numerous tribe of Hindoos in Gujerat, where they are separated into many divisions, besides the Shrawuka, or seceders from the Brahminical doctrines. They are all of them merchants and traffickers, and many travel to parts very remote from India, where they remain from one to ten years, after which they rejoin their wives and children. Many also finally settle in the towns of foreign countries, where their descendants continue to speak and write the Gujerattee tongue, which may be pronounced the grand mercantile language of foreign Indian marts. It is very nearly allied to the Hindi, while the character in which it is written conforms almost exactly to the vulgar Nagari. On examining the translation of the Lord's Prayer into Gujerattee, the missionaries discovered that of thirty-two words no less than twenty-eight were the same as the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens. In 1824 a Hindoo reformer named Swami Narrain had made considerable progress in collecting converts to his new doctrines, which appeared to be a great improvement on the grossness and absurdity of the Brahminical idolatry; but still he did not appear to have any intention of shaking off the whole system, intending only to modify it to suit his peculiar views.

The Jain sect are here more numerous than in any of the contiguous provinces, and possess many handsome temples, adorned with well-wrought images of marble, spars, and metals. Their chief deity, of the twenty-four they have altogether, is worshipped, as in other parts of India, under the name of Parswanath. Among the Brahminical Hindoos, the adherents of Siva mark their foreheads horizontally, and those of Vishnu perpendicularly, which should be renewed every morning, and, if attainable, by the hand of a Brahmin. At the visits of the Rajpoots, Grassias, and other tribes, opium is always presented in some form, solid or liquid, and swallowed by the guests in quantities that would destroy a European. The natives here, especially of the Rajpoot castes, when driven to desperation, dress in yellow cloths, which is a signal of despair and being reduced to the last extremity. The females here are frequently known to burn themselves with husbands with whom they have never cohabited, and with those who have ill-treated them, as well as the reverse, a mistaken sense of what they conceive to be their duty actuating them, totally independent of affection.

Besides its native hordes and castes, Gujerat (with Bombay) contains nearly all the Parsees or fire-worshippers to be found on the continent of India, the feeble remains of the once-predominant religion of the Magi. According to their own traditions, after the Mahomedan religion was promulgated in Arabia, and began to

pervade Persia, the ancestors of the Indo-Parsees retired to the mountains, where they remained until the overthrow of the Persian monarchy, and the death of Yezdijird, the last sovereign. Finding the religion of their native country wholly overthrown, and themselves outlaws, they wandered towards the port of Ormus, then governed by a branch of the old royal family, where they resided fifteen years, during which they acquired the art of ship-building, for which they are still celebrated. At the expiration of the above period they quitted Ormus, and proceeded to the island of Diu, where they sojourned nineteen years, but finding it too small for their increasing numbers, they embarked for Gujerat, where they first lighted up the Atish Baharam, or sacred fire, and spread themselves over the country. At present they are dispersed among the towns and villages along the north-western coast of India, and in 1815 were estimated at 150,000 families.

The zendavesta, or sacred book of the Parsees, is the only work known to have been written in the Zend language, and is believed by them to have been the composition of Zoroaster, in the reign of Gushtasp (supposed to have been Darius Hystaspes), or about his era. Although the writings of Zoroaster are alluded to by the ancients, the name of Zendavesta does not occur for 1,500 years after the period when they are supposed to have been published. The original work of Zoroaster is said to have contained twenty-one nosks or books, of which only one entire nosk, conjectured to have been the twentieth, is now extant and a very few fragments of the others. The greater portion of the Zendavest is a series of liturgic services and prayers for various occasions, and is totally destitute of any literary merit.

No existing religion, the Jewish excepted, has continued from such remote ages, with so little apparent change in the doctrine or ritual. Different opinions, however, are held regarding the nature of the world. All the laity consider Ormazd the author of good, and Ahriman the author of evil; but many of the priests assert that all things originated from Zerwan, or Time, and that Ormazd was only the first of created beings. They admit, however, that Zerwan has ceased to operate, and that good and evil flow directly from Ormazd and Ahriman. Ormazd is all light, purity, and excellence, and inhabits the primeval light; Ahriman, all darkness, impurity, and wickedness, and inhabits the primeval darkness. Cayumers, the father of the human race, was created by Ormazd, but Ahriman attempted to destroy him and attacked the revolving sphere, but was repulsed and precipitated into hell. The modern Parsees, even of the sacerdotal class, know little or nothing about the theory of their own cosmogony, the whole of which, however, is evidently Chaldean, and often forcibly reminds us of Milton's Paradise Lost. Sin and misery found their way into the world, and continued to increase until Zoroaster promulgated the law, and instructed man in the will of heaven. The whole Parsee system is founded on the supposition of a continued warfare between good and evil spirits, which pervade all nature, and religion teaches us how to gain the assistance of the first, and to escape from the snares of the last.

The grand visible objects of Parsee veneration are the elements, and more especially fire, light being considered as the best and noblest symbol of the supreme being. The sun, moon, planets, stars, and even the firmament, are consequently objects of profound respect; but they have no temples considered as the residence of the Deity or of any superior angel, their fire mansions being merely to preserve the holy element pure and unextinguished. Of the latter there are two species in Gujerat, the Behram and Aderan; the first composed of 1,001 kinds of fire; the last of at least fifteen or sixteen kinds. These varieties of combustion are procured from different ma-

terials, such as the fire from the friction of wood, from a funeral pile, from a kitchen fire, &c. The Behram fire, that most reverenced, is only to be found in their temples, viz. at Udipoor (a town near Damaun), at Nausarea, and at Bombay. In their original country, the greatest number of Guebres, or fire-worshippers, are collected in the city of Yezd, situated about 220 miles south-east from Ispahan, where they are said still to occupy about 4,000 houses. They are very industrious, but greatly oppressed by the modern Persian government, being taxed at twenty piastres a head, besides suffering endless extortions.

The Parsees have various classes of priests, of whom the chief are the Destoors or expounders of the law; and the next the Mobids, who are the officiating priests, and superintend all religious ceremonies; but the last rarely understand the prayers they recite, or the books from which they read. They are like the Levites, a peculiar tribe, the priesthood being hereditary in their families; but they have no salary or fixed allowances, and no chief priest or supreme ecclesiastical head, while many follow secular employments. Neither is the Parsee's an exclusive religion, converts, generally children, being admitted; but no Parsee can drink out of the same vessel with a person of a different religion, for fear of sharing in his sins and trespasses. The Parsee is one of the few religions that has no fasts, and as to food, all birds and beasts of prey are forbidden, as also the hare and dog. By their own law they may eat beef, but in India they generally abstain. The Parsee females have long maintained an unspotted character for chastity and superior continence, which may be accounted for from their being placed by their religious tenets on a level with the men.

Planting trees is a meritorious work, and they cut down fruit trees with great reluctance. In Bombay they never practice as professional gardeners, but Parsee merchants and shopkeepers abound. Others act as servants; many as ship carpenters and liquor-sellers. They are certainly a most active portion of the Gujerat population, and retain within a tropical latitude, the fair complexion, hardy constitution, and activity of more northern climates. As the life of a Parsee is a constant warfare with evil demons, in the conducting of which vigilance is indispensable, the watchful animals, such as the cock and the dog, are highly respected.

Their reverence for the elements prevents their throwing any impurities into fire or water, and to their respect for the latter may be ascribed, in all ages, their aversion to sea-voyages. In like manner their reverence for fire restrains them from following the trade of a smith, as they must never extinguish any light; neither do they enlist as sepoys, pretending that they dare not defile the sacred element by the use of fire-arms. Hence also they never bury their dead for fear of defiling the earth, but leave the bodies to moulder away, or to be consumed by birds of prey on the towers where they are exposed, guarded by a dog, who is expected to bark when he sees the demons approach to seize the soul, which is supposed to hover over the body for three days and nights, in the vain hope of being reunited. The corpse is also watched by centinels in order to ascertain which eye the vultures pick out first; if the right it is a good sign, and if in addition the dog takes a piece of bread out of the mouth of the corpse, no doubt remains respecting the beatitude of the deceased. Should any one survive after having been carried to the place of skulls, he is shunned by all as having had intercourse with impure demons, until purified by a priest, but such an event scarcely ever happens.

The Parsee being a religion of ceremonies and of prayers in an unknown tongue, has scarcely any effect on the morals of its professors, and indeed little influence of any kind, except as connected with the prejudices of caste. The priests are in

general not only disliked but despised, and little attended to except by the females. Like the Hindoos, the Parsees show some desire to be esteemed by the individuals composing their own peculiar tribe, but have little regard for any extraneous opinions, and appear totally insensible to any remote check of religion. They are bold, active, and persevering in the holy thirst of gold, and many of their merchants by superior enterprize and address have accumulated large fortunes. On the other hand, like all Asiatics, they are tyrannical when in power, regardless of truth, and not the less esteemed by their own sect for the want of it. The consequence is, they express no contrition when detected in any fraudulent attempt or imposture. Their houses are in general dirty, wretchedly furnished, and slovenly arranged, presenting to the view women, children, master, mistress, and servants, stretched out on the floor in all directions, asleep, dozing, or lounging. They are not, however, parsimonious, but on the contrary both luxurious and voluptuous, and frequently generous. Their great expenditure takes place on the marriages of their children, on which occasions, like the Hindoos, they waste immense sums in childish shew and folly. Their houses of recreation on the island of Bombay are generally a little distance in the country, and sometimes handsomely furnished after the European fashion, in which mode the disposal of their table equipage is arranged. Like them also they indulge freely in luxurious food, and rather exceed them in their potations of wine. But notwithstanding all their faults, the Parsees are certainly the most improveable caste in India, being free from Hindoo and Mahomedan bigotry, and in every respect more resembling genuine Europeans, than any other class of natives at present existing in Southern Asia.

The province of Gujerat enjoyed a much more flourishing external commerce, even during the most convulsed period of the Mogul government, than it has ever done since. The imports consist mostly of sugar, raw silk, pepper, cocoa-nuts, cochineal and woollens, and absorb a great deal of bullion. The Surat manufactures have long been famous for their cheapness and excellent quality. The chief are cotton, cotton-goods, and grain, principally to Bombay. Almost all the castes of this province (Brahmins and Banyans excepted) occasionally follow the occupation of the loom, which employs a great number of the more industrious of the lower classes. In all the larger towns, that remarkable class of men the Boras are to be found, who although Mahomedans in religion, are Jews in features, manners, and genius. They form everywhere a distinct community, and are every where noted for their address in bargaining, minute thrift, and constant attention to lucre; but they profess total uncertainty of their own origin. Boorhanpoor in Candeish is the head-quarters of this singular sect, and the residence of their moollah or high priest; but individual Boras are found straggling all over Gujerat, and the adjacent provinces, as itinerant pedlars.

It is a custom in Gujerat, when a merchant finds himself failing or actually failed, to light a blazing lamp in his shop, house, or office, and then abscond until his creditors have examined his effects, and received a disclosure of his property. Until his creditors have acquitted him, he does not wear the tail of his waistcloth hanging down, but tucks it up. Persons who act thus in time, so as not greatly to injure their creditors, are highly esteemed, and have so frequently been remarked as subsequently prosperous, that Hindoo merchants have been known to set up a light (proclaiming themselves bankrupt) without any real necessity, in hopes of good fortune afterwards.

The principal towns in this province are Surat, Ahmedabad, Broach, Baroda, Cambay, Gogo, Bhownuggur, Champaneer, and Juneghur. It is difficult to estimate the inhabitants of a country where the extremes of population and desolation meet. Surat

and its vicinity exemplify the first, and the north-western districts the second. For the sake of security, the great body of the natives do not live in single sequestered houses, but in assemblages of them; in Malabar, on the contrary, every Hindoo has a distinct or distant dwelling. The south-eastern zillahs of Gujerat surpass Bengal in the abundance of trees and hedges, in handsome substantial well-built villages, and in the decent thriving appearance of the people. A Gujeratty village is often visited by travelling comedians, who exhibit puppet-shows, and act historical plays. They are also occasionally frequented by itinerant musicians, singing and dancing men and women, wrestlers, and very expert jugglers, dancing-bears, trickish goats and monkies.

Fortifications were formerly numerous in Gujerat, and still continue in the more savage and remote quarters; but wherever the British influence extends they are fast crumbling to decay. Some years ago female infanticide prevailed among the Jahrejah tribes, of which are the principal chieftains of the peninsula, such as the Jam of Noanagur, the Rajas of Wadman, Goundel, and others. All these leaders through the exertions of Mr. Duncan, when governor of Bombay, and Col. Alexander Walker, in 1807, were induced to enter into engagements renouncing the inhuman practice, which was usually perpetrated by drowning the infant in a bowl of milk as soon as born; but as scarcely any of their female children ever reach maturity, it is strongly suspected they have not adhered very strictly to their agreement. The whole number of inhabitants in this vast province are probably much under-rated at six millions, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to ten Hindoos.

There are many remarkable wells and watering places in Gujerat, particularly one near Baroda, which is said to have cost nine lacks of rupees; and another at Vadva in the vicinity of Cambay, which, from the inscription appears to have been erected in A.D. 1482. Smoking tobacco is a very universal practice among the Hindoo males (Brahmins excepted, who take snuff freely), and Mahomedans of both sexes, throughout Gujerat. This province has long been famous for its excellent breed of cattle, especially the bullocks, which are reckoned the strongest, swiftest, and handsomest in India.

It is a common belief in Gujerat that the province was originally peopled by the rude castes that still exist and are known under the name of Coolies and Bheels, but there is neither record nor tradition regarding the nature of their religion or government, while subsisting in this primeval state. Subsequent to this era, there is reason to suppose that the space of country from the gulf of Cutch to the Concan composed one great nation, speaking and writing the same language, the Gujeratty. The names at present affixed to the subdivisions of the province are entirely modern, and can be traced to some incident of their history. At a more recent period the Rajpoots acquired the ascendancy, and the most powerful chief of that race resided at Anhulvada (named Puttan and Nehrwalla in the maps), situated on the northern frontier. According to legends handed down among the Rajpoot tribes, they do not appear to have been aborigines, but military adventurers who entered the province at different periods, and there established themselves; they consequently have no ancient claim to the country, and even now continue to be opposed by the primitive inhabitants. Three Rajpoot dynasties are said to have occupied the throne of Anhulvada; the Chowra, the Soolunker, and the Vagheela, from which many of the modern Grassia families pretend to be descended.

We learn from Abul Fazel, that Gujerat was first invaded from the west by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, about A.D. 1025, who subverted the throne of its native prince, named Jamund, and plundered Nehrwalla, his capital. In 1295 it is mentioned

by Marco Polo. After the establishment of the Delhi sovereignty, this province remained for many years subordinate to the Patan emperors; but in the fifteenth became again independent, under a dynasty of Rajpoot princes converted to the Arabian faith, who removed the seat of government to Ahmedabad, and influenced many of the natives to embrace their newly adopted religion. In 1572, during the reign of Acber, this race of princes was overthrown, and the province subjugated; but during the period of its independence, it had flourished greatly as a maritime and commercial state, for when the Portuguese first visited Malacca, they found a regular intercourse established between that distant port and Gujerat.

After the death of Aurungzebe in 1707, this province was immediately overrun by hordes of Maharatta depredators, and about 1724 was finally severed from the Mogul throne, which never afterwards recovered its authority. Until 1818 the Maharatta Peshwa and the Guicowar possessed large tracts of country: but at present only the last remains, the authority and dominions of the other having devolved to the British, who previously occupied about 6,000 square miles of fertile territory. The most striking circumstances attending the British progress were the extraordinary obstacles that existed to the introduction of order, and the surprising success with which these obstacles have been overcome. The continual intermixture of our territories with those of the Peshwa, Guicowar, the nabob of Cambay, and the unsettled tributaries of Cattywar and Mahykaunta; the number of half-subdued Grassias and Mewassies; the numerous and ill-defined tenures of every village; the turbulent and predatory habits of a large proportion of the people, combined to make the country, more especially beyond the Mahy river, more difficult to manage than any portion of the British conquests in Hindostan; yet by the cautious progress of the government, the judgment and temper of the local functionaries, our system and authority has been gradually and tranquilly established, without either irritating our subjects, or embarrassing ourselves by any sudden or violent changes.

In A.D. 1820, the north-western frontier of the British dominions in this quarter were formed in the first instance by the Runn, to the north of which is the sandy desert. The desert tract between the frontier of Jesselmere (about lat. 26°) and the Runn was divided between the Ameers of Sinde and the Joudpoor raja, whose respective limits might be indicated by a line drawn from Nuggur in Parkur to Jesselmere. The Sinde territory, however, would cross this line near its southern extremity, Bankasir and the whole of Parkur belonging to Sinde and the whole line being still contested; the Joudpoor raja claiming Amercote, and having actually levied contributions as far west as Sausur and Chaucra.

Parkur is partially cultivated, but all the remainder is a desert, consisting of high sand-hills, with scattered spots of verdure, and the capital villages that figure in our maps seldom containing more than 100 huts. This desert extends to near the banks of the Lonee, where a fertile tract commences known by the name of Neyer, inhabited by Rajpoots, and subject to Joudpoor; to which also the district immediately beyond the Lonee is subordinate, while that on the south-east is partly tributary, and partly in direct subjection to that state, as is also Sachore. The limit of the Joudpoor dominions to the south is shewn by a line drawn from Bayatree, near Bankasir, and at the mouth of the Lonee due east of Aboogbur, and passing about half way between Sachore and Theraud. The above states, including Palhanpoor, fill up all the space between the Runn and the mountains of Aboogbur; while the whole tract, whether belonging to Joudpoor or to our new allies, is thinly inhabited, and ill supplied with water, while its natural desolation

has been aggravated by the famines and pestilential distempers of 1813 and 1814.—(*Elphinstone, Drummond, Public MS. Documents, Crow, Bourchier, Walker, Macmurdo, James Forbes, &c.*)

GUJINDRE.—A small district in Northern Hindostan, principality of Bussaher, noted for the number of its iron mines, but containing few spots capable of cultivation.—(*Gerards, &c.*)

GUJUNDERGHUR (*Gaja, Indra ghara*).—A district in the province of Bejapoor, situated between the Krishna and Toombuddra rivers, and bounded towards the east by the Malpurba. A great proportion of this district is wild and hilly, but the towns and villages are pleasing, and usually encompassed with fine clusters of tamarind trees. Part of this territory belongs to the Nizam and part to the British government as successors to the Peshwa. The principal towns are Gujundughur and Kannagherry.

GUJUNDERGHUR.—A hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the detached extremity of a long sandstone mountain, fifty-nine miles N E. from Darwar. In A.D. 1804 this place, with a small surrounding tract, was held by Bishen Row Gorpara (a descendant of the famous Morari Row) independent of the Peshwa, although within his dominions.

GULAULI.—A fort in the province of Agra, situated within the limits of Col. Skinner's jaghire in the Doab; lat. 28° 28′ N.

GULGUNDAH.—A town in the Northern Circars, seventy-five miles W. by S. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 33′ N., lon. 82° 18′ E.

GULMI.—Formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships in Northern Hindostan, but now absorbed in the Gorkha dominions. Gulmi, the capital, is situated on a hill in lat. 28° 11′ N., lon. 83° 17′ E., eighty-five miles W.N.W. from Gorkha. The castle is built of bricks and covered with tiles, and the town formerly contained 500 houses, mostly thatched, and a great part of a hill mart named Barighaut, belonging to the chief of Gulmi. According to native testimony this territory contains mines of zinc, cinnabar, and copper. In Gulmi and Balibang one-half of the people are Khasiyas, one-eighth Brahmins, and the remainder impure tribes of cultivators and artificers. The principal crop among the Gulmi hills is rice, which is reaped in the beginning of their winter.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

GULTA.—A Hindoo sanctuary in the province of Ajmeer, three miles E. by S. from the city of Jeypoor, with which it communicates by a road over steep mountains, paved with large blocks of stone. This fane is situated in a wild and deep ravine amidst abrupt rocks. The waters of a sacred spring are collected in two beautiful reservoirs, and the little space that remains is crowded with pagodas (some perched high on the rock), pavilions, and stone arches. Lower down there is a small bazar and a gossain's garden, peopled with innumerable black-faced monkeys.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

GUMSALEE.—A small hamlet in Northern Hindostan, near the borders of Tibet, twenty-one miles west of Bhadrinath temple; lat. 30° 43′ N., lon. 79° 49′ E., 10,317 feet above the level of the sea. Near to this place there is a sanga, or swinging bridge, over the Dauli.

GUNANATH.—A stockade in Northern Hindostan, eleven miles north from Almora; lat. 29° 46′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E., 6,842 feet above the level of the sea.

GUNASS PASS.—A pass in Northern Hindostan over the outer ridge of the Himalaya, leading from the valley of Rupin into that of Baspa; lat. 31° 21′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E., elevation above the level of the sea 15,459 feet. This ghaut or pass was crossed by Lieut. Herbert on the 30th September 1819. Six miles of the road was over snow, then very soft in some places, the general depth from

three to six feet; but on the summit the ground could not be reached with a stick nine feet long. The thermometer at sunset stood at 33°, and water boiled about 187° Faht. This ridge appeared to be entirely composed of gneiss.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

GUNDERGHUR.—A lofty hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, division of Azimnaghur, situated about twenty-two miles travelling distance W. by N. from Belgaum.

GUNDUCK (*Gandaki*).—A district situated in that portion of the Bejapoor province which lies to the south of the river Krishna, and principally between the forks of the Malpurba river. The soil is naturally fertile and productive, and the country tolerably populous, notwithstanding the anarchical government it had for many years experienced previous to its coming under the British rule in 1818. The British portion forms part of the district of Darwar, besides which the principal towns are Hoobly, Noolgoond, and Kittoor.

GUNDUCK RIVER (*Gandaki or Salgrami*).—The source of this river is supposed to lie near the enormous peak of Dhawalagiri, or the White Mountain, supposed to be 27,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and situated about lat. 29° 30′ N., lon. 83° 45′ E. Another conjecture fixes it in the table-land of Tibet, which, if correct, would give it a course of about 450 miles, including windings, until its junction with the *Ganges* nearly opposite to Patna. It is to be regretted that the valley of the Gunduck has not yet been explored. In that valley ammonites are known to abound, and other antediluvian remains may be looked for. It is by this route, also, the great white mountain of the Himalaya is to be approached. Measurements taken from remote stations, give the Dhawalagiri an elevation of 27,000 feet above the level of the sea, and it is desirable that these should be confirmed or corrected.

The Gunduck in its early course is called the Salgrami, from the schistuous stones, containing the remains or traces of ammonites, found in the bed of the river, and carried thence to all parts of India, where they are worshipped under the name of salgrams. They are mostly round, and commonly perforated in one or more places by worms; the spiral retreats of antediluvian molluscas being taken by the superstitious Hindoo for visible traces of Vishnu. Common salgrams are about as large as a watch, and they are valued according to their size, shape, and internal construction. The price varies according to circumstances, some being valued so high as 2,000 rupees. In one of the Hindoo legends the following story is found explanatory of their original consecration.

Vishnu, as the preserver, created nine planets to regulate the destinies of the human race. Sani (Saturn) commenced his reign by proposing to Brahma, that he (Brahma) should submit to his influence for twelve years. Brahma referred him to Vishnu; but he was equally averse to the baleful influence of this planet, and therefore desired him to call next day. On Saturn's departure, Vishnu meditated how he could escape the misery of a twelve years' bondage to so inauspicious a luminary, and the result was, that he assumed the form of a mountain. Next day Saturn was not able to find Vishnu, but soon discovered that he had become the mountain Gandaki, into which he immediately entered, having assumed the form of a thunderbolt worm, and began to perforate the stones of the mountain, and in this manner he persevered in afflicting the animated mountain for the space of twelve years. At the end of this probation the deity resumed his own figure, and recommended that the stones of the mountain Gandaki should be in future worshipped. On being asked by Brahma how the genuine stones might be discriminated, he said they would have twenty-one marks, the same number as were on his body. Since the above era the

salgrams of the Gunduck have been held in high estimation; and during the hot months, the Brahmins suspend a pan perforated with a hole, through which the water drops on the stone and keeps it cool; and being caught below in another pan, is drank in the evening with much satisfaction by the devout of that faith. The Brahmins sell these stones, but trafficking in images is reckoned dishonourable.

The following is Dr. F. Buchanan's description of the salgram, which is more minute than above. On the banks of the Gunduck near Muktinath, north of the Himalaya (lat. 29° 10′ N., lon. 83° 15′ E.) is a precipice, from which the river is supposed to wash the salgrams. Pilgrims who have been at the place, say that the stones are found partly in the precipice and partly in the bed of the river, where it has washed down the earth. On account of its containing these stones, this branch of the river is usually called the Salgrami, and the channel every where below Muktinath, until it reaches the plain of India at Sheebpoor, abounds with these stones. They all consist of carbonate of lime, and are in general quite black, but a few have white veins. Their colour is probably owing to some metallic impregnation, which also occasions their great specific weight. Most of them are what naturalists call petrifactions, and by far the most common are ammonites, half imbedded in a ball of stone, exactly of the same nature with the petrified animal. Others, which are reckoned the most valuable, are balls containing a cavity formed by an ammonite that has decayed, and left only its impression. The ammonites, or the impressions, are called the chacras, or wheel of the salgram, but are sometimes wanting; the stone being then a mere ball, without any mark of animal exuviæ. Some balls have no external opening, yet by rubbing away part of one of the sides, the hollow-wheel or chacra is discovered. Such salgrams are reckoned particularly valuable.

Besides salgrams some few grains of gold are occasionally separated from the sand of the Gunduck, and also from the substance of the salgrams, which on examination have been found not to be calcareous. In Northern Hindostan, the term Gunduck is a general appellation for a river; and Major Rennell conjectures it to be the Condochates of Arrian. The stricter classes of Hindoos abstain from swimming in this river, it being prohibited in their sacred books.—(*F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Ward, Kirkpatrick, Rennell, Wilford, &c.*)

GUNDWANA.

A large province of the Deccan, extending from the eighteenth to the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Allahabad and Bahar; on the south by Berar, Hyderabad, and Orissa; to the east it has Berar and Orissa; and on the west Allahabad, Malwa, Candeish, Berar, and Hyderabad. In length it may be estimated at 400 miles, by 280 the average breadth.

Gundwana, in its most extensive signification, comprehends all that portion of Hindostan surrounded by the soubahs above-mentioned, which remained unconquered up to the reign of Aurengzebe; but Gundwana Proper, or the country of the Goands, is more strictly limited to the districts of Gurrah, Mundlah, Mehkoor, Kheirlah, Nagpoor, Choteeghur, Deoghur, and Chandah, stretching south along the east side of the Wurda and Godavery, to within one hundred miles of the mouth of the river last-mentioned. Within the above space, intervening between Bengal, Orissa, and Nagpoor, there were a vast number of petty rajahships, which, although partly tributary to the Nagpoor Raja or to the British government, were until recently in a manner politically independent, and unconnected with each other. These are all wild and woody countries, hitherto affording little or no revenue to their nominal sovereigns, and in

reality of no importance except as being conterminous with Bengal and Orissa, to which their rugged and mountainous surface, covered with thick jungle, presented a strong barrier against any invasion, especially of cavalry, from the west. Several of these have been incorporated with the British districts acquired in 1818 from the Nagpoor Raja, and the whole are more or less directly subordinate to the British government; but the geography of this part of India has not yet assumed so determinate a shape as to authorize an alteration of the old designations of the principal tracts, which up to 1817 were the following, commencing at the northern extremity, *viz.*

1. Chandail.	14. Sumbhulpoor.
2. Boghela.	15. Sohnpoor.
3. Billounja.	16. Choteesghur.
4. Singrowla.	17 Mundlah.
5. Raja Chohans.	18. Gurrah.
6. Manwas.	19. Mehkoor.
7. Canroody.	20. Kheirlah.
8. Sohagepoor.	21. Gundwana Proper.
9. Sirgooja.	22. Nagpoor.
10. Odeypoor.	23. Chandah.
11. Koorba.	24. Bustar.
12. Jushpoor	
13. Gangpoor.	

During the reign of Aurungzebe, the whole northern part of this province, named Baundhoo or Bhatta, was partially conquered by his generals, and annexed to the soubah of Allahabad; but they never made any impression on the southern quarter, which remained unsubdued until about the middle of the eighteenth century, when Ragojee Bhoonsla of Nagpoor reduced or rendered tributary a large proportion, and confined the independent Gonds within very narrow limits. By Mahomedan historians the large division of Choteesghur is sometimes named Jeharcund, but this appellation properly applies to the greater part of the province.

Gundwana contains the sources of the Nerbudda and Sone rivers, and is bounded by the Wurda and Godavery, but is on the whole but indifferently supplied. The Mahanuddy, Caroon, Hatsoo, and Silair traverse its interior, but are not navigable within its limits; neither are there any lakes of the slightest magnitude. A continued chain of hills extends from the southern frontier of Bengal almost to the Godavery, and formerly separated the eastern from the western division of the Nagpoor dominions. Indeed a very large proportion of the surface is mountainous, ill-watered, unhealthy, covered with jungle, and thinly inhabited; and to its poverty and evil qualities it has probably been indebted for its long-continued independence. The more fertile tracts were subdued at an early period by the Bhoonsla Maharattas, who claimed as paramount over the whole: but their sway in many parts was little more than nominal, and the tribute could only be realized by the presence of an army. During the war of 1818 considerable benefit was derived from the rebellion of the hill tribes occupying the passes in the Nagpoor territories, who indeed had before been restrained by the apprehension of the co-operation of the British troops against them.

The country occupied by the genuine Gonds remains for the most part a primeval wilderness, its human inhabitants being scarcely superior to the brute creation with which they live intermixed. A great number of this miserable tribe exist nearly in a state of nature, and are probably amongst the lowest in the scale of civilization of all the natives of Hindostan. Having been driven by their invaders from the plains to the unwholesome fastnesses of the more elevated regions, they frequently descended during the harvest to the low lands, and plundered the produce of their ancient inheritance. In the course of the last half century the increasing appetite of the wild Gonds for salt and sugar has tended more to promote their civilization than any other circumstance; and since the establishment of an extensive teak-cutting concern, they have so far overcome their dread of Europeans as to enter into their service for the purpose of felling timber, and

afterwards of assisting the conveyance of the rafts down the Godavery, although the sea air is said to be as fatal to them as that of the hills to a sojourner from the plains.

The Gonds present the character of an aboriginal people, distinct from the Hindoos, although borrowing many of their institutions and practices. Their own religion is of the rudest description, the chief object of their worship being a deity named Thureespen, represented by a small spear-head of iron, carefully preserved in certain trees, and his rites can only be performed in woods and jungles. Their own idols are of a similar description, possessing various attributes, bestowed on them by the hopes and fears of their savage votaries, alternately a prey to each other and to the beasts of the forests. To these they offer up as sacrifices hogs, goats, and fowls, accompanied with many fantastic rites; even human sacrifices are not abstained from, and were formerly common. They eat the meat, and never fail to drink hard after the celebration of every ceremony, whether of a purely religious nature or of a mixed description, such as births, marriages, and funerals. The women are as unrestricted as the men in the practice of intoxication, and join in all the songs, dances, and drunken revels. To their original deities they have added several from the Hindoo stock, but they worship in a manner peculiar to their own manners and notions. All the individuals of this tribe are remarkably superstitious with regard to omens and portentous signs, and practise the arts of witchcraft and sorcery, in which, by their Hindoo neighbours, they are believed to excel. In this part of India the Gonds have, rather unaccountably, been allowed to class themselves with the second or military tribe of Hindoos, a stretch of complaisance in the Maharatta functionaries, owing probably to the ancient predominance of the Gond chiefs. These last term themselves "Koosatoor" (a corruption of Khetrie), and claim a descent from the Pandoos; and in performing their domestic worship, although they profess Mahomedanism, at their births and marriages they intermingle observances peculiar to Rajpoots with those of the common Gonds and Mahomedans.

Within the limits of their own communities they separate themselves into a great variety of classes, subdivision into castes being apparently so inherent in the nature of East-Indians; and even the Europeans of Calcutta already show a tendency that way. With the Gonds, the shades of difference in most cases have a reference to dialect, as we find Gurra Gonds, Bhopaul Gonds, the Raj Gond of Deoghur, the Manjee Gond of Buster, and the Khattollee Gond of the low countries. East and west of the Lanjee hills are the Jaria Gond of Chanda, the Marree Gond of Telingana, the Buster Gond, and the Koorkoo Gond of the Mahadeo hills. The Manjee, Marree, and Koorkoo Gonds speak dialects distinct from the one common to the rest. Of the two first no specimens have been procured; but the Koorkoo dialect has been found to resemble the language spoken by the Lurkakoles, on the borders of Singhboom.

In the Nagpoor dominions the Gonds, like their Hindoo neighbours, divide themselves into twelve and a half castes, which again ramify into endless subdivisions, according to the number and nature of their household gods; and their rules on the subject of eating and drinking are apparently as complicated and absurd as those of the Brahminical sects. The Gonds eat animal flesh without distinction, even that of the cow, and they rival the outcast Hindoos in their eagerness after carrion. Their language contains among its elementary words several of Telinga and Tamul origin. The same mixture is to be observed in the Koorkoo, which has even a larger proportion of the latter; and a similar coincidence is said to exist in the dialect of the tribes inhabiting the Rajemahal hills.

The Gonds, as a people, have every

where a distinct physiognomy which discriminates them from other tribes. They have usually broad, and rather flat noses, and thick lips, with not unfrequently curly hair while young. There is a great difference in size and strength between the domesticated Gonds of the plains and the wild dwellers in the hills and jungles. The first are tall, well-made, stout, and sometimes even handsome and fair. They are also good agricultural labourers, faithful and intelligent, and not quite so much given to lying as their Hindoo and Mahomedan neighbours. Even the wildest of this class are not insensible to kind treatment, or unwilling to adopt regular modes of procuring a subsistence. On the other hand, some of the ruder tribes who inhabit the forests of Bustar and Kuronde are as wild and untameable as the New Hollander, and it is among these chiefly that human sacrifices are still perpetrated. The Maharattas, as far as their authority reached, put a stop to this practice, and the zemindars of Bustar and Kuronde have been induced by the exertions of the British functionaries to suppress it within their own limits: it is to be apprehended, however, that their laudable endeavours have been but partially successful. Of these Gonds the wildest are the Marees, who generally wander about in a state of complete nudity, for even their females have no covering but aprons of leaves. Their food consists principally of roots, vegetables, and the tender shoots of the bamboo. They pay but little even of nominal obedience to the Bustar raja, reject all intercourse with other tribes, and at stated periods try to catch strangers in order to sacrifice them to their gods.

The Gonds are mentioned in the historical poems of the Hindoos as being a powerful nation or tribe in early times, and probably an aboriginal people partly conquered and converted by the Hindoos, and the remainder driven to the hills and jungles. The country over which they are now scattered seems to have been subject to different Hindoo princes, when the Mahomedans first crossed the Nerbudda and invaded the Deccan. The great Hindoo dynasty of Deoghur or Dowletabad is believed to have extended beyond Berar, east to the Wyne Gunga, and north to the Nerbudda, including Candeish, Baitool, &c. To the north-east of this state was the kingdom of Gurrah, which, on the north, stretched over Deoghur above the ghauts, the present British eastern districts, the valley of the Nerbudda, and beyond that river to Bundelcund and Malwa, and on the east to the districts of Wyne Gunga, and probably Choteesghur. To the south was the kingdom of Telingana, including Chanda and the south-western portions of Choteesghur, with Bustar. Telingana and the Hindoo empire of Deoghur were early dismembered and formed into the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, but Gurrah was not subdued until the reign of Acber. The Mussulmaun princes of the Deccan extended over most of the country between the Wurdah and Wyne Gunga rivers, and close up to the western boundary of Deoghur above the ghauts. Kheirlah and Baitool, which were also subdued by them, seem at one time to have been the seats of a Hindoo prince, probably a remnant of the Hindoo family of Deoghur; and the Mahomedan princes of Malwa and Candeish had encroached on the territories of the Gurrah dynasty on the side of Bhopaul and the valley of the Nerbudda, prior to its subjugation by Acber. A period of almost total darkness follows the slight mention of these circumstances in the Mahomedan annals, and the chasm is ill supplied by tradition.

In Aurengzebe's time we find Gond princes of considerable power in Mundlah, Deoghur, and Chanda, and the amount of tribute paid by the two latter would indicate a higher degree of opulence than could have been expected. Tradition reports that most of Deoghur above and below the ghauts, after being devastated

by some great calamity, was overrun and conquered by the Gowala or cowherd tribe. Ferishta mentions Asa Aher, the Gowala chief, and reputed founder of Aseerghur, as having rule over Gundwana; but Jatha, a Gond, subverted the power of the Gowalas above the ghauts; and his descendant, Buhkt Boolind, carried his arms beyond Nagpoor, and also made conquests from Mundlah and Chanda. The territory of Mundlah also became the property of a Gond dynasty by some unexplained revolution; and the reigning family of Chanda, termed Bulhar Sahy (probably a remnant of the Warangol princes), were supplanted by successors of the Gond tribe.

After the expulsion of Appa Saheb, the ex-Raja of Nagpoor, in 1818, he sought refuge among the wild Gond tribes of the Mahadeo hills, which brought on the temporary occupation of the elevated plain of Puchmurry, a commanding and central position, both with regard to the Gond hills and to the British territories on the Nerbudda, in which these tribes were in the habit of making predatory incursions. Chyne Sah, of the Hurrye family, whose ancestors had obtained possession of the *Hurrye* jaghire, situated in a mountainous jungle, from the Raja of Deoghur, had been the grand creator of all these disturbances, by affording an asylum to the ex-raja, and supporting his cause; he was in consequence deposed, and permanently confined at Chanda, where he died of the cholera in 1820. The success of the British troops caused most of the Gond chiefs voluntarily to surrender, and the British government at last managed to suppress the system of plunder and devastation so long habitual to the inhabitants of the Mahadeo hills. Indeed so effectual was the change, that the Gonds subsequently adhered to their reformed habits under circumstances of great poverty and distress. The tracts in Gundwana acquired by these events were found in a very reduced condition, and in 1819 only yielded 1,84,000 rupees per annum; but the resources of several under a state of tranquillity were considered capable of great future improvement. The pilgrim tax at the Mahadeo temple and the passes leading to it, which had before been divided among many Gond chiefs, and occasioned endless disputes, was assumed by the British government, which allotted shares to each respectively.

Nagpoor is the modern capital of Gundwana; the ancient ones were Deoghur, Mundlah, and Gurrah: but here are no remains indicative that the province at any era flourished as a civilized or highly cultivated country. Since the expulsion of Appa Saheb, the ex-raja, a large portion, more especially north of the Nerbudda, has been transferred to the British government, and considerable progress has been made in arranging its judicial and financial establishments.—(*Jenkins, Public MS. Documents, J. Grant, Leckie, Capt. Blunt, Col. Colebrooke, &c.*)

GUNNISHGHUR. (*Ganesa Ghar*).—A town situated at the southern extremity of the Agra province, seventy-five miles N. by W. from Seronge, lat. 25° 7′ N., lon. 78° 16′ E.

GUNGAILEO.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, seven miles N. by E. from Kotah, lat. 25° 17′ N., lon. 75° 47′ E.

GUNGAPOOR. — A considerable town in the province of Ajmeer, on the road from Kotah to Odeypoor, where Gunga Bhye, the wife of Madhajee Sindia, lies buried. An establishment is kept up at the temple, for the support of which some villages were formerly assigned, but the revenues they yielded have been gradually diverted to other purposes.—(*Tod, &c.*)

GUNGRAUR (*or Gangarar*).—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 was estimated to contain 1500 houses; lat. 23° 56′ N., lon. 75° 41′ E., fifty-six miles north from Oojeen. This town and pergunnah formerly belonged to Holcar, but was given to Zalim Singh of Kotah by

the treaty of Mundessor in 1817. It is watered by the Cali Sind river and from wells.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Gungawutty (*Gangavati*). — A small walled town with a mud-fort in the province of Bejapoor, district of Annagoondy, seven miles N. by E. from the city of Annagoondy, or Bijanagur. At present it belongs to the Nizam. At the fortified village of Junteull, about a mile to the south of Gungawutty, there are some curious remains of Hindoo temples.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Gunnaaum.—A very small village, but provided with an excellent bungalow for the accommodation of European travellers, situated in the Northern Circars, district of Masulipatam, about twenty-six miles travelling distance S.W. from Ellore.

Gunnooroshur.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirteen miles N.W. from Hussingabad, lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 77° 34′ E.

Gunterry (*or Gungleterry*).—A tract of country in the province of Aurungabad, separated from Candeish by the Injadree hills. Candeish is comparatively a low country. Gunterry, which joins it on the south, is from 1,500, to 2,000 feet above the level of the Tuptee. The east of Gunterry, though open and fertile, has been almost uninhabited since the famine of 1803.—(*Public MS. Documents, Jas. Fraser, &c.*)

Guntoor.—The fifth district of the Northern Circars, which, with the addition of Palnaud from the Carnatic, now forms a collectorate and magisterial jurisdiction under the Madras presidency. To the north it is bounded by the Nizam's territories and the district of Masulipatam; on the south by the districts of Cuddapah and Ongoli; to the east it has the bay of Bengal; and on the west the dominions of the Nizam. In A.D. 1788 the original Guntoor Circar comprehended an area of 2,500 square miles, exclusive of the mountainous tract on the west; and its general boundaries are the Krishna to the north, and the Gondegama (which separates it from the Carnatic) to the south. The geography, however, of this quarter is as yet but ill delineated, in even the best modern maps, where the dislocations of towns and villages are so numerous, that a more exact survey appears requisite. The principal towns are Guntoor, Junacoonda, Camupaud, and Nizampatam.

The earth of the Guntoor Circar, in the neighbourhood of the populous village of Mundarum, is much impregnated with saltpetre. In this vicinity the soil is black, and capable of producing every sort of grain if supplied with adequate moisture. Unfortunately, however, the bed of the Krishna lies too deep, and after the periodical rains, which terminate in November, it often happens that not a drop of rain falls until next July, for which reason rice cannot be cultivated in any considerable quantity. During the months of April, May, and June, animals and vegetables suffer greatly for want of moisture, and every thing exhibits the appearance of decline and misery. After the descent of the first showers a very different scene is presented, for the finest verdure immediately springs up, and all nature seems reanimated. The natural strength of the soil is such, that in good years Indian corn grows to the height of six and seven feet, with ears a span in length. The natives, who feed principally on this grain, are stout and healthy, and during the dry months its straw affords the chief nourishment for sheep and cattle. Cotton is only partially cultivated in detached pergunnahs, and is usually sown along with grain of different sorts; but the soil and climate are not considered favourable for its production. Trees are not plentiful; those seen are mostly clumps of tamarind trees, which during the hot season afford refreshing shelter to the traveller. Mango, cocoa-nut, and palmira trees are scarce, but measures have been taken to encourage the cultivation of the latter. There

are diamond mines in this Circar, but it is a very long period since they have been productive or profitable; and several ruins of Buddhist temples have been discovered within its limits.

In 1765, when Lord Clive acquired the other Northern Circars from the Mogul, Guntoor remained in the possession of Bazalet Jung, the Nizam's brother, to be enjoyed by him as a jaghire during his life, after which it was to devolve to the British government. In 1779, a treaty was most improperly concluded with Bazalet Jung by the Madras government (then noted for peculation), without the consent of the Nizam, for the cession of Guntoor, and a few months after it was granted by the same presidency to Mahomed Ali, the Carnatic Nabob, on a lease of ten years; but the whole transaction was abrogated next year by the government of Bengal. Bazalet Jung died in 1782, but the country was not occupied by British functionaries until 1788, a tribute of six lacs of rupees being still payable to the Nizam. In 1803, when the present Nizam succeeded his father on the throne of Hyderabad, he offered to relinquish the tribute; but the offer was refused by the Marquis Wellesley, and it was regularly paid until 1823, when the whole was finally redeemed by the payment of £1,200,000 to the Nizam. In 1816 Guntoor suffered dreadful ravages from a numerous body of Pindarries, which entered it from the western borders of Masulipatam, and during eleven days' stay in this and the neighbouring district of Cuddapah, plundered 339 villages, killed or caused to destroy themselves 182 persons, wounded 505, and tortured in different ways 3,603 persons. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue in the Guntoor district was 4,12,738 star pagodas.—(*Oakes, F. W. Robertson, Hodgson, Rennell, Fifth Report, &c.*)

GUNTOOR.—The chief town of the preceding circar, situated in lat. 16° 17′ N., lon. 80° 29′ E., forty-eight miles west from Masulipatam. This is an extensive, but irregularly built and mean town, or rather village; for although some of the houses are roofed with tile, while others are only thatched, the walls of both are mud, and there is neither temple or edifice of note within its whole precincts. Trees, however, abound, and it is divided into two portions by an extensive reservoir, to the west of which stand the courts of justice and bungalows of the civilians. In 1816 it was attacked by the Pindarries, and for four hours pillaged; but the treasury, although almost defenceless, owing to the extreme cowardice of these miscreants, escaped plunder, and was subsequently fortified with a mud wall and bastions.—(*Fullerton, &c.*)

GURDON (or Garudan).—This is a regular Chinese station, and is so far advanced among the mountains that it may be considered as standing on debateable land, on the verge of Tibet and Northern Hindostan; lat. 30° 38′ N., lon. 81° 7′ E., seventeen miles south from Lake Manasarovara. Gurdon is at all times a permanent mart for trade; but in the month of November there is an annual fair, which is resorted to by merchants from Cashmere and Lahdack, and business to a considerable amount is transacted. The principal articles brought from China are wool, woollen cloths, gold-dust, and tea. On these occasions the circulating medium is a coin named timashi, struck at Lahdack from ingots of silver brought all the way from China; and gold-dust in many cases supplies the place of coin. It has been computed that from 15,000 to 20,000 fleeces are annually brought to the markets of Gurdon and Tucla-gur; but the goats'-hair used in the manufacture of shawls is not to be met with at either station, the sale of this article being almost monopolized at Lahdack. It is said that three fleeces fetch only one rupee. The gold dust is delivered separately, in small parcels tied in a rag, one of

which is called a titang, and contains about eighty grains apothecaries' weight, worth about fourteen shillings sterling. It is probable that pearls, coral, shanks (large buckie shells), and broad-cloth, to the aggregate amount of 10,000 rupees, might be here annually disposed of.—(*Webb, &c.*)

Gurhoura.—A large and well-peopled village in the province of Allahabad, belonging to the raja of Ditteah, near to which is a remarkable subterranean bath, built by one of the female ancestors of his family. In length it is about 190 feet, breadth eighteen; and depth, from the surface of the earth to the bottom of the well, by a flight of stairs, fifty-seven feet. It is constructed of hewn granite and cemented with chunam.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Gurnudy.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Backergunge, situated on the west bank of the Puddah or Great Ganges; lat. 22° 50′ N., lon. 90° 11′ E.

Gurrah (*Gura*).—A large division of the province of Gundwana, situated about the twenty-third degree of north latitude, and intersected by the Nerbudda and some of its tributaries. The town of Gurrah stands in lat. 23° 9′ N., lon. 80° 10′ E., 150 miles N.N.E. from the city of Nagpoor. In the remote times of Hindoo antiquity this was the capital of a considerable Hindoo principality, which comprehended Bhatta, Sohagepoor, Choteesghur, Sumbhulpoor, Gangpoor, Jushpoor, and other contiguous districts. In the reign of Aurungzebe the division of Bhatta or Baundhoo, consisting of the six divisions above-mentioned, was considered as a new conquest, although it had previously been partially subjected, and was formally annexed to the province of Allahabad. The real dimensions of Gurrah are very uncertain; but it is known to occupy a considerable portion of the upper valley, through which the Nerbudda flows, and that it comprehends a large tract of fertile, but in most parts uncultivated and thinly-peopled territory. The principal towns are Jubbulpoor (the Maharatta capital), Gurrah, Panagur, and Sirrenuggur; the whole of which in 1818 were ceded to the British government. In the town of Gurrah there was formerly a mint established, in which an inferior rupee, named the ballashahy, was coined. The modern town of Gurrah stands in a most singular pass, and extends through and along the face of a mountainous ridge for about two miles, and along with the country is now comprehended in the following British district.—(*Leckie, Fitzclarence, &c.*)

Gurrah Mundlah.—A British district thus named in the province of Gundwana, consisting of cessions acquired from the Nagpoor raja in 1818, situated principally about the twenty-third degree of north latitude, and towards the sources of the Nerbudda.

In this part of India there are not any fiscal officers called zemindars, that appellation being only given to the descendants of the jaghiredars of the old native governments, who have a stronger hereditary connexion with the land than any other class. Many of these are Gonds, who are considered the only indigenous portion of the population; and some have large talooks, while others have only single villages. They may be regarded as the proprietors of their own estates, but have not any office similar to that of chowdry or desmookhs. The only hereditary officer is the register or accountant, here termed beeher, and sometimes gomashta, but always of the Kayst tribe. The heads of villages are called potail or gurtul, the use of the one term or the other depending on caste. Among the Gonds the term is bhow.—(*Molony, &c.*)

Gurrote.—A town in the province of Malwa belonging to Holcar, which in 1820 contained 500 houses; lat. 24° 20′ N., lon. 75° 42′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah, which at the date above-mentioned contained 158 villages, and yielded a revenue exceeding 20,000 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Gurrakota (*Garrakota*).—A town and fortress in the province of Allahabad, and formerly the capital of a petty state tributary to Sindia, ninety miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 23° 44′ N., lon. 79° 8′ E. The fortress of Gurrakota stands at the confluence of the Sonar and Girdavi rivers, which wash the outer wall on both sides, while towards the land there is a wet ditch that unites them. Its longest extent is 900 yards, and its greatest breadth 200. Its general figure approaches that of a semicircle, of which the chord of the diameter is parallel to the banks of the Sonar, the remainder being composed of broken lines that touch the Girdavi, and take the general figure of its windings. A fausse-braye runs along the bank of the river and the scarp of the ditch, which is thirty feet deep, and substantially rivetted; but, except during the wet season, the Sonar at a particular spot may be easily forded. About 1,600 yards from the ditch a wall extends between the two rivers, and is continued for the space of a few hundred yards along the Sonar. The space thus inclosed is nearly waste. This town and fortress were ceded by Sindia, whose orders to surrender were resisted by the commandant. It was in consequence invested and captured by a British detachment, and the governor sent prisoner to Gualior. In 1820 the Bengal government determined on restoring to Arjoon Singh, the expelled raja of Gurrakota, the whole of the lands he had been dispossessed of, in consequence of his forcible occupation of the place. This was accordingly done, after lopping off such tracts as were intermixed with the British district of Saugor, and reducing the Gurrakota domains to a compact form and clearly defined boundary.—(*Blacker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Gurrumcondah.—A hilly district in the Balaghaut ceded territories, situated between the thirteenth and fourteenth degrees of north latitude, and at present comprehended in the collectorate of Cuddapah. This tract of country lies near the verge of the eastern ghauts, and presents a mountainous surface, rather thinly inhabited, but very productive under suitable cultivation. It is watered by many torrents from the hills, but has no river of magnitude.

Gurrumcondah.—A strong hill-fort in the Balaghaut ceded districts, the capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 13° 46′ N., lon. 78° 34′ E., 130 miles N.W. from Madras. In 1791 this fortress was besieged by the Nizam's army, assisted by a small British corps, which stormed the lower fort without much loss, and was afterwards ordered south to join the grand army. A body of the Nizam's troops were left to garrison the lower fort and blockade the upper, under the command of one of the Nizam's officers: who was shortly after attacked by Hyder Saheb, Tippoo's eldest son, totally routed, and slain. After supplying the upper fort with necessaries, Hyder Saheb retired, having fully accomplished the object for which he had been detached.—(*MSS., &c.*)

Gurur.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fifty-seven miles south from Teary; lat. 23° 56′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.

Gurut.—A small town in the province of Agra, situated on the north bank of the Jumna river, eighteen miles east from Kalpee; lat. 26° 6′ N., lon. 79° 59′ E.

Gurwal (*Gerhwal*).—A province of Northern Hindostan, situated between the thirtieth and thirty-first degrees of north latitude. To the north it is separated from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; on the south it has the great plain of the Ganges; to the east its limits are defined by the Dauli, Alacananda, and Ramganga rivers; and to the west by the course of the Jumna. The superficial contents may be estimated at 9,000 square miles, and containing two geographical subdivisions, viz. Gurwal proper, which occupies the

whole of the lower ranges of hills; and the sources of the Ganges, comprehending the holy and alpine region whence that river springs. In former times this principality also included Kumaon, when Gurwal was designated by a term signifying 1½ lacks, and Kumaon by one signifying eight lacks, but it has not been clearly ascertained whether these numbers had reference to revenue or population. In 1814, the Gorkhas had undisputed possession of the whole country to the dependencies of China; but since their expulsion a new distribution has taken place, separating it into two distinct portions: the British government having retained the Deyrah Doon, the passes of the Ganges and Jumna at either extremity of that valley, as also all the country to the eastward of the Bhagirathi and Alacananda, which last-mentioned tract has been annexed to Kumaon, and the remainder restored to the expatriated Gurwal Raja. The present boundaries, therefore, of his territories to the eastward, are the Alacananda from Rudraprayag, until its junction with the Bhagirathi, and thence to the plains by the united streams forming the Ganges, and above Rudraprayag where the Alacananda receives the Mandakini, by the latter river. All the country to the east of that line has been permanently incorporated with Kumaon.

On the south, towards Lolldong, the whole face of this province is an assemblage of hills, jumbled together in various forms and directions; sometimes in parallel chains, but of no great extent, and often connected at their termination by narrow ridges running across the vallies at right angles. The summits of all are usually narrow, and of various shapes, and the distance between each range short; the vallies in consequence are so confined that in many parts it would be difficult to find a spot large enough to accommodate a corps of one thousand men. Some of these ranges are covered with trees and always green; others are naked and stony, affording shelter for neither birds or beasts. On the eastern borders of Gurwal, among the lower range of mountains, are extensive forests of oak, holly, horse-chestnut, and fir, and beds of strawberries are also seen, equalling in flavour those of Europe. But a small portion of this extensive country is either populated or cultivated, a very large proportion of its surface being left in the possession of the wild animals.

The inhabitants of Gurwal and Kumaon are termed Khasyas, as having settled in the Khas country; but all pretend to be descended from colonies that have migrated from the south, and disclaim all connection with the original and impure barbarians. West from Gurwal the designation of Khas is altogether rejected, and it is asserted that the impure race never held the country. Although only separated by a small river, the inhabitants of Gurwal differ much in their appearance from those of Kumaon, being considerably stronger and more active. But the first, although more robust than the Kumaonies, appear equally devoid of the energy usually attributed to highlanders, for although oppressed by the Gorkhas, and sold by hundreds into slavery, they never made any effort to assert their independence. Yet their country is remarkably strong, the mountains being lofty and precipitous, and separated at their bases only by deep water-courses and streams, formed by the numerous rivulets and torrents that pour down their sides.

The Bhagirathi and Alacananda, which by their junction at Devaprayag form the Ganges, are the largest rivers of Gurwal. The first has a course from north to south; the last from N.E. to S.W., and towards them all the other streams have a natural inclination. The Bilbung, which falls into the Bhagirathi, the Mandakini, the Pinder, the Mandacni, the Bisha, and the Dauli, all of which join the Alacananda, may be denominated streams of the second order. Of these some approach in magnitude the river they unite with; a majority have their sources in the Himalaya mountains, which one (the Dauli) ac-

tually penetrates, and is certainly the remotest source of the Ganges. None of these streams being fordable, they are crossed by rope and plat-form bridges at the most convenient points of communication, the masses of rock and stones by which their channels are encumbered preventing in most places the use of boats. The roads are mere footpaths carried along the slope of a mountain, in the direction of the principal streams and water-courses. Serinagur the former capital, is the only town of note, next to which comes Barahat, the modern residence of the Gurwal Raja; but the province abounds with celebrated places of worship, which seem to have been held sacred by the Hindoos for many ages, although there is reason to suppose that the conversion of the inhabitants to the Brahminical faith is an occurrence of no great antiquity. Four of the five Prayags, or holy junctions of rivers, all renowned for their sanctity and sin-dispelling privileges, are within the limits of this miserable principality, as is also Gangoutri, the source of the most revered of rivers.

The country now called Gurwal (Garhawal or Ger) at least in part, formerly belonged to a petty chief of low birth, who resided at Chandpoor, and paid tribute to Karuverpoor, the capital of a dynasty that has long disappeared. About 360 years ago, a Rajpoot came from the plains, and expelled the Chandpoor chief and established his own family, which subsequently built Serinagur and for many years were only known to fame as the Serinagur Rajas. After the conquest of Kumaon the Gorkha commanders, in concert with Harsha Deb, a turbulent Brahmin, attacked Gurwal, and after a contest of two years, were on the point of succeeding, when they were recalled to Catmandoo in consequence of the advance of a Chinese army. Its conquest, however, was subsequently effected in 1803 by Ummer Singh Thappa. No pretext or excuse was ever held out for this attack, nor does it appear that the natives of India ever considered a pretence for a war necessary or incumbent, although since their diplomatic intercourse with Europeans, they have collected, and occasionally when circumstances suit, make use of many very good observations on the subject. The Gurwal Raja, Pradyumna Sah, unable to oppose an effectual resistance retired with his dependants into the British territories, where, having the family throne for 1,50,000 rupees, he raised some troops, returned to the Deyrah Doon, and fought a battle with the Gorkhas in which he was defeated and slain. His family, however, escaped and in 1814 resided at Futtehghur.

During the wars of 1814-15 between the Gorkhas and the British, the entire apathy and neglect of the exiled Raja, his family, and adherents, towards contributing by their exertions to its success, was such, as left the country at the disposal of the British government, unshackled by any engagement resulting from the conditions on which the Raja was invited to join and co-operate, and Gurwal might safely be viewed as a country conquered from the Gorkhas, by the unaided efforts of his European allies. The latter, however, did not take advantage of that circumstance, further than to complete, with such variations and extensions as expediency might suggest, the original intention contemplated, and carefully made known to the Raja, of retaining the Deyrah Doon, including the ferries on the Ganges and Jumna, together with the territories lying to the east of the Bhagirathi and Alacananda as boundary streams. The question respecting the large district of Raween was reserved for future consideration, which ultimately terminated in its restoration to the raja, whose hopeless condition a short time back must have precluded all expectation of ever recovering any fraction of his hereditary dominions. The aggregate revenue of the territory thus restored, amounted to 40,000 rupees per annum subject to no other charge than the

expense of the civil administration, and of the raja's family; the British government undertaking the military protection and all other contingents arising from the connection with Gurwal.

The Nepaulese rulers had counted the houses and villages in the portion given up to the Raja, and according to one report they amounted to 1,129 villages, and 5,144 houses, which at five to a house would give 25,720 for the number of inhabitants; but this appears a singularly scanty population for so extensive, and in many places fertile tract of country. By the adoption of the Alacananda for the eastern boundary, the town of Serinagur, the ancient capital, fell within the territory reserved by the British government, in consequence of which the raja fixed his residence at Barahaut, where the details of his civil government are conducted by his own officers, and the expense defrayed from his own resources.

Previous to the re-establishment of the raja a sunnud was delivered to him, specifying the conditions of the grant, which were, that he would govern his subjects with lenity and justice, promote agriculture and commerce, and abolish the traffic in slaves. It was also stipulated that he should not alienate or mortgage any portion of his dominions without permission; that he should furnish hill-porters and supplies when wanted, and generally perform all the obligations of allegiance and fidelity; in return for which he would be protected by the British troops, which were however only to be employed for the maintenance of public tranquillity, and for strengthening his authority when the ordinary local establishments were found ineffectual. It was thought advantageous that the least possible degree of interference in the details of the internal administration should be exercised by the British government, but that its advice and assistance should not be withheld, nor even its direct interposition, when necessary to check mismanagement, or prevent the recurrence of anarchy and confusion.

Besides the Deyrah Doon, valued at 23,964 rupees per annum, the other sections of Gurwal, annexed to the Kumaon district, were valued at 37,000 rupees per annum, exclusive of the sayer or variable imposts. The copper mines of Dhunpoor were leased, in 1816, for 1,856 Furruckabad rupees. Those of Nagpoor, which formerly yielded 58,000 rupees per annum, during the confusion consequent on the Gorkha invasion had been abandoned, and became choked up with rubbish, to recover them from which condition required much more capital than a native miner usually possesses. It was soon discovered that a disproportionate quantity of rent-free land was attached to temples and other religious buildings, the resumption of which might cause an impression unfavourable to the character of the British government for liberality and toleration, in matters connected with the faith and religious usages of all classes of their native subjects; it was in consequence determined that the revenue of the pergunnahs so appropriated should be continued, provided that the commissioner was satisfied they would not be diverted from their original purpose, and, as too frequently happens, converted to a source of individual emolument. The repair of the road also from Serinagur to Badrinath also appeared an object of some importance, as encouraging the resort of a greater number of pilgrims, and thereby promoting the intercourse and traffic between the plains and the immense hills whence spring the sources of the Ganges.—(*Raper, Public MS. Documents, F. Buchanan, Traill, W. Fraser, Hardwicke, &c.*)

GUTPURBA RIVER (*Gatapurva*).—A small river in the province of Bejapoor, which has its rise among the western ghauts near Gundurghur, and after a course of about 180 miles joins the Krishna, and proceeds with it to the bay of Bengal. Like all

mountain streams in this part of India, the Gutparba is subject during the monsoon to sudden and extraordinary risings and fallings. Between the village of Koonoor and Gocauk it descends from an elevated table-land to the low country in the form of a magnificent cataract.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

GUJKOTTA (*Gajcota, the elephant fort*).—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Rungpoor, ten miles north from the town of Rungpoor; lat. 25° 50′ N., lon. 89° 15′ E.

GUZZELHUTTY GHAUT.—A remarkable mountain-pass, forming the principal communication between the Mysore table-land and the province of Coimbatoor, and commencing about fifty-one miles S. by E. from the city of Mysore. It was greatly improved about twelve years ago by the formation of a broad practicable carriage-road, which winds down the face of the mountains. A bungalow for the accommodation of travellers has been erected in the little town of Tallimally, at the head of the pass, and at its lower declivity, near a handsome bridge of three arches across a mountain stream, another bungalow and choultry have been constructed, but suffered to go to ruin. At the base of this pass rolls the rapid and formidable torrent of the Moyaar, and close to its left bank are the old fort of Guzzelhutty, now choked up with jungle and a small endowed choultry, attended by few Brahmins within, and without by many wild [illegible].

The scenery here is magnificent. The mass of the Neelgherry mountains rises immediately to the south, separated from the Mysore table-land only by the chasm through which the Moyaar flows, and presenting to the eye a bold and abrupt acclivity of probably not less than 4,000 feet, with a swelling green-sward on the summit. The perpendicular height of the pass itself above the valley of the Moyaar may be about 2,000 feet.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

H.

HADJEE OMAR KALAUDY.—A place of refreshment in the province of Mooltan, district of Tatta, fifteen miles east from Corachie. About a mile to the S.W. of this place the soil is a fine loam, overflowed during the freshes by the Indus.

HADJEEGUNGE.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, twenty-nine miles W.S.W. from Dacca; lat. 23° 31′ N., lon. 89° 53′ E.

HADJYPOOR.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, situated on the north-east side of the Ganges, where it joins the Gunduck, nearly opposite to Patna; lat. 25° 41′ N., lon. 85° 21′ E. The soil of the surrounding country is peculiarly productive of saltpetre, and it is from hence and the adjacent division of Sarun that the greater part of that article intended for the Company's investment is procured. In November an annual horse fair is held in the vicinity, when horse races are also exhibited. In 1807 the whole number of horses exposed at the fair amounted to near 6,000, two of which, from the government stud, sold for 4,000 rupees each. At the fair of 1816 the show of horses indicated a great improvement of the breed within the districts under the influence of the stud, and a large batch of zemindary colts and fillies were purchased by the officers of the stud on government account.—(*J. Grant, &c.*)

HAINAN ISLE.—A large island in the China sea, situated at the southern extremity of the empire, between the 18th and 20th degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 190 miles, by seventy the average breadth. In A.D. 1808, according to Captain Krusenstern, the Ladrone pirates who infest the coast of China had obtained possession of Hainan, but the survivors of the crews of several British vessels wrecked on this island since the above date describe it as populous, well cultivated,

and carrying on an extensive traffic with the main-land of China, to which it continued in regular subjection.

Hairumbo (*Hedamba*).—The ancient name of a country bordering on Assam and Silhet in Bengal, in modern times named Cachar, under which head it will be found described.

Haldubary.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, situated on the east side of the Mahananda river, fifty-five miles N.E. from the town of Purneah; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 87° 59′ E. The pergunnah, or rather estate, in which Halderbary stands, is one of the largest in the Purneah district, containing about half a million of acres, besides a portion of Dinagepoor. During the reign of Acber it was but a small territory, the greater part of which belonged to the Bhooteas of Sikkim, and being overspread with jungle, was much frequented by thieves. In this condition it remained until Seid Khan, a stranger, obtained possession, drove the Bhooteas to the mountains, and erected a fortress at Haldubary.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Hallaur (*or Halawar*).—A division of the Gujerat province which derives its name from Halla, a Jahrejah chief, and comprehends the whole country conquered by his descendants. The boundary of this country to the north is the gulf of Cutch; on the west the Burudda mountains, the ocean, and Okamundel; on the south the river Bhadur and Cattywar; on the east the district of Muchoo, Kaunta, and Cattywar. The eastern parts are hilly and rocky, but the soil in general is light, and well adapted for the cultivation of bajaree, jowaree, and in some parts of wheat—bajaree and cotton are exported. Trees are seldom met with in Hallaur, to remedy which defect, the Jam of Noanagur order the heads of villages to plant a certain number of mango-trees annually. The fabulous history of the Jahrejahs traces their descent from the four Jadoos, but at present few of the independent chieftains trace their lineage beyond Rawul, the youngest son of Humeer, the sovereign of Cutch. The principal of these, after the Jam of Noanagur, are the chiefs of Debrole, Rajcote, Goundul, Kotra, and Drauppa; but the internal administration of these petty states is entirely in the hands of the Nagne Brahmins, who promote and encourage the dissipated habits of their respective chiefs, so that, until the interference of the British government, confusion, anarchy, and dissention prevailed through every corner of this miserable country.—(*Macmurdo, Walker, &c.*)

Hallole.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fifty-two miles E.N.E. from Cambay; lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 73° 22′ E.

Hambangtotte.—A bay and fort on the S.W. coast of Ceylon, much frequented by small craft to load salt; lat. 6° 8′ N., lon. 81° 10′ E., forty miles E.N.E. from Dondra Head.

Hangarang.—A pergunnah north of the true Himalaya, bounded on the south by the district of Kunawur, and subject to the principality of Bussaher. The villages here are all perfectly Tartar, and exhibit a striking difference in appearance and language to those of Kunawur. The appearance of this pergunnah is strange and melancholy; mountains bare of forest, but covered above with a little snow, of a rounded form with gentle declivities, but broken towards the Sutuleje into abrupt and precipitous abysses, bare of vegetation. Although now subject to Bussaher, this tract must have formerly been part of Lahdack. The separation of Bussaher from Hangarang is decided and strongly marked, whereas from the latter to Lahdack there is no difference perceptible.

Hangarang produces wheat, barley, oos, papar, and turnips, but no rice, not even the kind peculiar to high and dry situations. There is but one harvest season. The trees, such as apricots, willows, dog-roses, gooseberry, currants, and whins, are all

stunted, and only to be found near villages and in the beds of streams. In 1819 the pergunnah contained nine villages, the revenue of which was 900 rupees per annum, and the inhabitants carried on a small trade with Lahdack and Gortope, from which last they bring salt and wool. They manufacture a coarse sort of blanket-stuff; but ponies and mules compose a great proportion of their wealth. The pergunnah at present is poor, naked, and barren, and is principally valuable as a channel of communication with the Lahdackies and other Tartar tribes.—(*Herbert, &c.*)

Hangarang Pass.—A pass thus named in Tibet, between Heng and Soongnam, elevated 14,710 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 47′ N., lon. 78° 31′ E. The summit of this pass is entirely composed of limestone, and in October 1819 was without snow, and horses were seen running loose and feeding 15,000 feet above the ocean. A few hundred feet higher there were patches of snow.—(*Hodgson and Herbert, &c.*)

Hangwelle.—A little fort in the island of Ceylon, situated on the Kalany Gunga river, eight miles road distance east from Columbo. The intervening country is well inhabited; lat. 6° 55′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.

Hansoot (*Hansavati*).—A town in the province of Gujerat, fourteen miles S.W. from Broach; lat. 21° 39′ N., lon. 73° 3′ E. In 1812 the total population of the Hansoot pergunnah was ascertained to be, Hindoos 13,938, Mahomedans 915, Parsees 363: total 15,955. And of the town, Hindoos 2,517, Mahomedans 1,091, Parsees 131: total 3,739 persons.

Hansi.—A town in the province of Delhi, sometimes named Hansi Hissar, from its proximity to the latter, and situated on the channel of the canal constructed by Sultan Ferose, about ninety-two miles W. by N. from Delhi; lat. 28° 54′ N., lon. 75° 39′ E. The fort here is strong, for a native fortification, and is placed on the top of a small hill, scarped, and surrounded by a ditch. The town lies immediately to the south, and in 1810 contained few houses, although the walls included a considerable space of ground. On the east is an excellent brick tank; and vestiges of the Chittung canal, or water-course, are still to be seen. Hansi was captured by the Ghizni Mahomedans so early as A.D. 1035, and towards the end of the eighteenth century again attracted notice, as the capital of the short-lived principality erected by the adventurer George Thomas.—(*Lieut. White, G. Thomas, Rennell, &c.*)

Harponelly.—A division of the Balaghaut ceded districts, bounded on the north and west by the Toombuddra river. The town of Harponelly stands in lat. 14° 44′ N., lon. 76° 8′ E., sixty-one miles W.S.W. from Bellary. The country here is not so hilly as further east, but there are some strong positions, the most noted of which is Oochinadroog. The Raja of Harponelly continued independent until A.D. 1774, when his principality was conquered by Hyder, and annexed to his dominions as a tributary appendix. On the fall of Seringapatam the ostensible heir took possession of Harponelly, and is now a jaghiredar under the British government. It is supposed he had no just claim to the estate, but was merely a boy set up by the Brahmins, who held the principal offices under the former rajas, to perpetuate the management of affairs in their own hands. In this manner rajas and zemindars are every where created in the British dominions, because the chief native servants, in order to secure their own situations, which are in general hereditary, whenever the line is extinct, take care to bring forward a child from some quarter.—(*Munro, Moor, &c.*)

Harowty (*Haroula or Haravati*).—A large division of the Ajmeer province, situated principally between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. Its boundaries are: on the north, Keroulee; on

the south, the Muckundra hills, which separate it from Malwa; on the east Dundahir; and on the west, Mewar. Harowty is nearly on a level with Malwa, and possesses the same general features and natural advantages, with the exception of its climate, which, from its more elevated hilly girdle, is much warmer. It is well peopled, and has a fine black soil, highly cultivated and abundantly watered by the Kali Sinde, Parbutty, Chumbul, &c., which in their passage through Harowty become considerable streams. In some parts also the lands are irrigated by conduits brought from lakes, which, like the great reservoirs of the Carnatic and Mysore, seem to be usually formed by artificial embankments. The principal towns are Kotah, Patun and Boondee, the first and last of which are the capitals of Rajpoot princes, who almost divide the district. Patun, or, as it is commonly called, Jalrapatun, founded by Zalim Singh the regent of Kotah, has within twenty years risen from a village to be one of the handsomest and most opulent cities of Upper Hindostan. The name Harowty indicates that it is the country of the Hara tribe; but the cultivators are a mixture of Rajpoots, Jauts, Brahmins, Bheels, and other low tribes. Of the words of the Lord's Prayer in the Harowty language, twenty-two were identified by the missionaries as the same with those of the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens. The practice of erecting cheterees, or sculptured monuments in commemoration of deceased persons of rank or military caste, appears almost peculiar to the south-eastern parts of the Ajmeer province, more especially in Harowty, where they are of surpassing size and superior workmanship.—(*Malcolm, Fullarton, &c.*)

Harriorpoor (*Hariharapura*).—A Gorkha fort in Northern Hindostan, district of Muckwanpoor, commanding the Bogmutty river; lat. 27° 15′ N., lon. 85° 28′ E., forty-two miles S.E. from Catmandoo.

Harriorpoor.—A town in the province of Orissa, the capital of the large zemindary of Mohurbunge, and residence of the proprietor; lat. 21° 51′ N., lon. 86° 47′ E., twenty-eight miles N. by W. from Balasore.

Harsha.—See Assarooa.

Hattia Isle.—An island in the province of Bengal, district of Chittagong, formed by the sediment of the great Megna, and fourteen miles long by about ten the average breadth. On the western side it is now nearly joined by alluvions to the adjacent island of Dukhinshahbazpoor. Although Hattia be in the jurisdiction and collectorate of Chittagong, it is separated from the main land of that district by two considerable arms of the sea, so as to render the communication difficult even in moderate weather, and altogether impracticable for two or three weeks during the south-western monsoon. The surface of this island lies extremely low, and at spring-tides, during the height of the rains, is nearly submerged. It is, notwithstanding, very productive of grain, and yields salt, which is manufactured here on government account, and brings a high price at the annual sales in Calcutta.

Hatras (*Hathras*).—A town in the province of Agra, district of Allyghur, thirty-one miles north from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 37′ N., lon. 78° 58′ E. The fort is an oblong, its longest diameter running nearly from east to west, measuring 1,600 yards round the glacis. The ditch is 120 feet wide and eighty-five deep, and the body of the place 400 or 500 yards in compass. In some places the scarp is perpendicular from above; in others it has been excavated so as to form extensive subterraneous dwellings, with windows opening into the cavity of the great ditch, into which apartments the zemindar's family frequently resorted during the intensity of the hot monsoon. The cuttrah, or fortified town, lies west by north of the fort, about 700 yards distant.

The forts and estates of Hatras

and Moorsaun formed part of the territory ceded by Dowlut Row Sindia in 1803, from which period their chiefs had invariably pursued a system directed to the establishment of total independence, coined base money, and made their forts the refuge of criminals. Repeated warnings and admonitions having failed to produce any permanent impression, Hatras was besieged in 1817, and taken after a tremendous bombardment from forty-two mortars, which enveloped the place in smoke and ruin; but the zemindar, Dyaram Thakoor, made his escape during the confusion with a small party of horse. After remaining in concealment for some years, he emerged in 1820, and intreated the compassion of the British government: which, in consequence, on account of his great age and misfortunes, settled a pension on him of 1,000 rupees per month, and gave him permission to reside at Soron, a Hindoo place of worship on the banks of the Ganges. Pensions had previously been settled on his two wives, and on his son Neckaram. Since the above event the commercial prosperity of Hatras has greatly increased, and its spacious cutterah now presents one of the busiest scenes in Upper Hindostan. A temple dedicated to Krishna, the late Thakoor's court of justice, and some other buildings, are still standing within the ruined walls of the fort.—(*Public MS. Documents, Fullarton, &c.*)

Hatcoul.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Sarun, eighty miles north from Patna; lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 85° 20′ E.

Hattoon.—A small fort in the province of Ajmeer, division of Marwar, which in 1808 was the principal strong-hold of a predatory race named Mhairs, and then captured by a British detachment.

Hausulpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Chumbul river, within a few miles of its source, eleven miles S.W. of Mow; lat. 22° 20′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E. In 1820 it contained about 300 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Hawelbaugh.—A spot in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, beautifully situated on the banks of the Cosila river, five miles N. by E. from Almora, but above 1,300 below that city. Sugar-cane does not come to maturity here, but plantains, mangoes, and many hot-climate vegetables thrive. It is remarkable, however, that although the summer is much hotter than at Almora, there is much longer and harder frost in winter. The civil commissioner for the affairs of Kumaon resides at this place, where are also the cantonments of the Kumaon battalion. Hawelbaugh was at one period the site of a royal garden, and a favourite retreat of the Kumaon rajas; but the only memorial that remains of its former dignity is a lofty stone gateway, which has been converted into a court of justice.—(*Heber, Fullarton, &c.*)

Hazareybaugh.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 241 miles west from Calcutta. It stands on an elevated tract of table-land, extending from east to west about twenty-eight miles, and although unnoticed in any map of Hindostan previous to the late Mr. Arrowsmith's, is one of the most considerable places in the district, and was for many years the head-quarters of the Ramghur battalion under Major Edward Roughsedge. The progress of conquest has removed this corps to Sumbhulpoor in Gundwana, but a small corps of sepoys still remain in charge of the cantonments. The principal bazar here is open and regularly built, and although the shops and houses are all of mud, some of them are two stories high. The king of Oude has erected a small mausoleum here over the remains of the celebrated Tofuzzul Hossein Khan, who died at Hazarybaugh on his return to Lucknow from Calcutta. Near to Hazarybaugh there are some hot springs, strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen, and holding in solution muriate and sul-

phate of soda. The spring arises at the base of the table-land of Hazarybaugh, about twenty-seven miles to the north of the new road. There are four springs, but only two of them are of a remarkable high temperature, raising the thermometer to 170° and even 190°. The fumes of sulphuretted hydrogen rise in great abundance from the last. The water, as is evident from its composition, might be employed for medicinal purposes if the ingredients be in sufficient quantity.—(*Fullerton, Medical Transactions, &c.*)

HEERAPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-six miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 16′ N., lon. 79° 12′ E.

HELAI.—A village near the Indus, in the province of Mooltan, principality of Sinde, on the road leading from Tatta to Hyderabad; lat. 24° 52′ N., lon. 68° 27′ E. At this place the Indus is three-fourths of a mile wide, and in some parts from four to five fathoms deep.

HENERY.—A very small island on the west coast of the province of Aurungabad, about fifteen miles south from Bombay; lat. 18° 41′ N., lon. 72° 57′ E. This islet is about 600 yards in circumference, and nearly of a circular form. There is only one landing-place on the north-east side where boats can lie; but the island is well inhabited, being almost covered with houses and fortifications. In A.D. 1790 it belonged to Ragojee Angria, and, although in sight of Bombay, was a principal rendezvous of pirate vessels.

Near to Henery is another islet named Kenery, which is also fortified, and of considerable strength. In 1790 it belonged to the Peshwa, who also permitted pirates to resort to its harbour. Kenery was taken possession of and fortified by Sevajee in 1679, before which period, from a supposed want of fresh water, it had been neglected. Henery was first settled and fortified by Sidi Cossim in 1680.—(*Moor, &c.*)

HENZADAH.—A town in the kingdom of Ava, province of Pegu; lat. 17° 25′ N., lon. 95° 38′ E. Along with Keoumzook which adjoins it, it forms a considerable town, and is distinguished from common villages by the number of pagodas and religious edifices it contains, the only marked distinction between them in Ava. In 1825 it was found deserted, but had been a place of commerce, inhabited by some Armenians and other merchants, who cultivated indigo, which thrives in Pegu with less risk and uncertainty than in Bengal.—(*Snodgrass, &c.*)

HEOORA.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, district of Ahmednuggur, thirty-six miles N.E. by N. from the city of Ahmednuggur. This place has a handsome quadrangular stone fort, situated on an adjoining rising ground.

HEROBIA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles S. by W. from Huttah; lat. 23° 54′ N., lon. 79° 33′ E.

HERRIOOR (*Herisru*).—A town in the Mysore raja's territories, situated on the east side of the Vadavati river; lat. 13° 56′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E. In front of the temple of Siva at this place, there is an obelisk for the display of lights at festivals, forty feet high, and formed of a single granite block. The Vadavati (or Hoggry) is here a fine clear stream, abounding with fish, and easily fordable at most seasons. The surrounding pergunnah, named also Herrioor, is of an uneven stony surface, poorly cultivated, and thinly peopled.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

HERRENKAIRO.—A considerable town in the province of Candeish, district of Bugwanea, situated on the high road from Kotra to Bahye, twenty-one miles S.S.W. from Hussingabad, lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 77° 40′ E. The town and annexed pergunnah belong to the British government.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

HETHAURA.—A town in the Nepaulese dominions, situated on a fine

plain about a mile wide, bounded on the north by the Rapty (Raputi), which is here a beautiful, clear, and rapid stream; lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 84° 54′ E., eighteen miles S. by W. from Catmandoo. The soil of the plain is good but not cultivated, being mostly covered with stately forests of saul trees, which are kept clear of underwood by burning the fallen leaves and withered grass in the dry season. The Rapty having come from the north, here turns to the west, and after being joined by the Kanara some way below, flows on until it joins the Gunduck through a valley, the lower part of which is cultivated, while all near Hethaura is waste. This proceeds from the jealousy of the Gorkha government, which does not wish to have the forests cleared. The heat of Hethaura is more temperate than that of the Terriani; but as the warm weather advances, its insalubrity increases. Although Hethaura, on account of its being the chief mart for the commerce carried on between the Nepaulese dominions and those of the British nation, is a place of much occasional resort, yet it still continues a miserably unhealthy village. For the accommodation of merchants there is a brick building, surrounding a square court, and there are also a few shops. From hence to Bheemfed, a travelling distance of eighteen miles, the road leads through a narrow defile between high and steep hills, overgrown with thick woods, through which the Rapty winds in so extraordinary a manner, that it is crossed by the way twenty-two miles.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Hidjellee (*Hijela*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Hooghly, fifty-five miles S.S.W. from Calcutta; lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 88° 10′ E. Properly this town and pergunnah belong to the province of Orissa; but they have been so long and so intimately connected with Bengal that they may be now considered incorporated.

The land about Hidjellee is of two descriptions; the first, fresh and arable, is preserved from the inundation of the tides by embankments, running parallel to and at some distance from the rivers and numerous inlets that intersect the whole territory. The second, or salt land, is that portion exposed to the overflowing of the tides, and usually termed churs, or banks, where mounds of earth, strongly impregnated with saline particles (named kalaries, or working places) are formed. Each of these heaps is estimated to yield on a medium 233 maunds (of eighty pounds each) of salt, requiring the labour of seven manufacturers, who by an easy process of filtration and boiling are enabled to complete their operations before the setting-in of the periodical rains. In 1814 the Hidjellee district yielded a land revenue of 2,91,448 rupees, exclusive of an immense sum realized annually by the monopoly of its salt.—(*James Grant, &c.*)

High Islands.—Islands situated off the coast of Borneo, principally between the first and second degrees of south latitude, which, from their number and unknown positions, render the navigation of the circumjacent seas dangerous. The expedition against Batavia in 1811, under Sir S. Auchmuty, anchored at one of these islands, where two excellent watering places were found. Hogs, mouse-deer, and monkeys were discovered, but no resident inhabitant of the *soi-disant* homo sapiens tribe. The coasts, however, are occasionally visited by Malay fishermen and pirates.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Himmutghur.—A hill-fort, recently built, and of considerable strength, in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Birseah, twenty-seven miles N.W. by N. from Bopaul.

Hilsah.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, twenty miles S.S.E. from Patna; lat. 25° 18′ N., lon. 85° 20′ E.

THE HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS.

West of the Indus this stupendous range of mountains is known to the

Afghans by the name of Hindoo Cosh, while to the east of that river it has the more appropriate name of Himalaya (the abode of snow); but in reality the chain is the same, and can scarcely be said to be interrupted by the slender stream of the Indus, about lat. 35° N. From the north-east point of Cashmere it has a south-eastern course, extending along the sources of all the Punjab rivers (except the Sutuleje), where it separates the hilly portion of the Lahore province from what in modern times, for want of a better designation, has been called Little Tibet. Still pursuing the same direction, it crosses the heads of the Ganges and Jumna, forcing their currents to the southward; but further east the chain is less continuous, as there is reason to believe it is penetrated by the Gunduck, the Arun, the Cosi, and the Teesta. Beyond the limits of Bootan the chain is lost in an unexplored country; but it probably extends to the Chinese sea, along the northern frontier of the provinces of Quangsi and Quantong, declining gradually in elevation as it advances to the east. So long as it borders Hindostan the height of the Himalaya is enormous; and it may be there considered as a buttress or supporting wall to the Tibetian plateau, into which the descent is comparatively moderate, when compared with that from the southern faces. The breadth of the snowy belt varies in different parts, between the Sutuleje and Ganges; it has been estimated not to exceed eighty miles from the plains of Hindostan to Tibet.

With respect to altitude the Himalaya is probably the highest range of alpine mountains in the world, twenty of its most elevated peaks greatly exceeding Chimborazo, the loftiest summit of the Andes. Among the loftiest of the Himalaya is one distinguished by the name Dhawalagiri, or the white mountain, situated, as is understood, near the source of the Gunduck river. The near coincidence of Capt. Blake's observations, made in 1814, with those of Capt. Webb, justify the expectation that when the true height of Dhawalagiri shall be accurately determined, it will clearly exceed 27,000 feet. The following numbers are stated as differences of elevation, which may be received as near approaches to a correct determination of their height.

	Feet.
Dhawalagiri, or the white mountain, above the level of the sea	27,000
Jumoutri	25,500
Setghur (properly Swetaghar, or the white tower north of Nepaul)	25,261
A mountain, supposed to be Dhaibun, above Catmandoo, 20,140 feet above the sea	24,768.
A mountain, not named, observed from Catmandoo, in the direction of Cala Bhairava, 20,000 feet above the valley of Nepaul, and above the level of the sea	24,625
Another near to it, 18,662 feet above the Nepaul valley; above the level of the sea	22,962
A third, in its vicinity, 18,452 feet; do. do.	22,852
A peak, named St. George, was estimated by Capt. Hodgson, at do.........	22,240.

The Tahirgang, or Pargeul mountains, which are situated near the Shipké pass, were ascended by Messrs. Gerards to the prodigious height of 19,411 feet above the level of the sea, measured barometrically and confirmed trigonometrically, and within two miles of the summit, which is conjectured to be 22,000 feet. The rocks here lie in immense detached masses, heaped on one another. Seeds of a species of campanula were gathered at the elevation of 16,800 feet, on a spot where the thermometer in the middle of October was at 27° Fahrenheit; but the utmost limits of lichens and mosses must doubtless reach still farther. At the elevation of 14,000 feet, on the confines of Chinese Tartary, coal ammonites were

picked up, the saligram stones merely containing their impressions. Ammonites were also found in the beds of torrents near the Niti and Mana passes. In 1819, Lieut. Herbert traced the Tonse river to its source within the snowy mountains, and crossed over the southern ridge of the Himalaya by the Gunas Pass, elevated 15,700 feet above the sea; descending from which, he entered the valley through which flows the river Baspa, a principal tributary to the Sutuleje.

The Himalayan glens for the most part run perpendicular to the range, or from N.N.E. and N.E. to S.S.W. and S.W. The face exposed to the north-west is invariably rugged, and the opposite one facing the south-east shelving. On the declivity towards the north-west the trees grow at elevations several hundred feet higher than those on the opposite face, which has a more gentle slope; in some instances the difference exceeds one thousand feet. The general height of the forest on the southern face of the Himalaya is about 12,000 feet above the level of the sea; oaks and pines reach that altitude, birches ascend a few feet higher. Descending from the pass of Bandajin, the level of the highest juniper was 13,300 feet.

On ascending the southern slope of the snowy range, the extreme height of cultivation is 10,000 feet, and even there the crops are frequently cut green; the highest habitation is 9,500 feet; 11,000 may be reckoned the utmost limit of fuel, and 12,000 that of bushes; although, in ravines and sheltered spots, dwarf birches and small bushes may be found almost to 13,000 feet. On the north side, in the valley of the Baspa river, the villages are found at 11,400 feet; cultivation about the same; and the forest at least 13,000 feet. Advancing farther, villages are found at 13,000 feet; cultivation at 13,600, fine birch trees at 14,000; and furze bushes, furnishing excellent fuel, 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. Further east, towards lake Manasarovara, according to Tartar information, crops and bushes thrive at a still greater elevation. In the exterior chain to the south, where the heat is only reflected from one side, the warmth is much less than in the interior cluster, where there is a reverberation of heat from all sides.

All travellers over the Himalaya have remarked that a difficulty of breathing, attended with lassitude and severe head-ache, takes place at an altitude of nearly 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The native mountaineers, who feel it as sensibly as strangers, and know nothing about the rarity or density of the atmosphere, attribute the faintness to certain exhalations from noxious plants; and Capt. Hodgson was inclined to think them right, as the faintness was never experienced on naked snow, even when higher, or where vegetation was completely absent; but only an inability to go far without stopping to take breath. By the natives it is called the biche. With respect to the cold of the Himalaya, our information is rather defective. On peaks formed of solid rock, that have been covered for ages with never-melting snow, and not exposed to the vicissitudes of the seasons, an uniform cold must have always prevailed. All moisture is frozen, no rain falls no partial thaws take place, or there would be glaciers; in fact, although we hear a great deal about the snows of the Himalaya, very little is said about ice.

Throughout the Himalaya, as far as yet explored, the only rock sufficiently extensive to characterise its formation is gneiss, the other rocks occurring only in beds and veins. Granite veins are numerous in some positions, but it does not form the leading feature in the geology of these mountains, which differ in structure remarkably from the Andes. Other differences occur, among which the most remarkable is the total absence of volcanoes. The chief mineral productions hitherto found are sulphur, alum, plumbago, bitumen, gypsum, potstone. borax, rock-salt, gold dust

in small quantities, copper, lead, iron in some abundance, antimony, combined with lead and sulphur, and manganese with iron.

No volcanoes were seen or heard of by Capt. Hodgson when he explored the sources of the Ganges; where the mountains consist of various sorts of granite; nor were any shells or animal remains seen. The magnetic variation was very small, about one degree easterly, scarcely differing from that of the plains of Hindostan. The diurnal tides of the barometer are perceptible, the mercury always falling a little before noon, as on the plains.

When Captain Webb visited the Bhootea pergunnah of Jowaher (about 11,000 feet above the level of the sea) in 1817, he found extensive fields of a species of barley and buckwheat, between the village of Milum and the temple (elevated 11,401 feet); and from a height at least 1,500 feet above the spot last-mentioned, he procured plants of the jatamansi or spikenard. The road from Milum to Tartary leads along the banks of a mountain stream, and is a continued ascent of four days' journey for laden sheep and goats. This route opens in July, at which time the Bhooteas find pasture for their flocks, even at the fourth halting-place, which, allowing only 500 feet ascent for each day, will carry the limit of vegetation in this quarter of the Himalaya to 13,500 feet. On the 21st of June 1817 Capt. Webb's camp was 11,630 feet above Calcutta, on a clear spot, surrounded by rich forests of oak, pine, and rhododendra, the surface covered with rank vegetation as high as the knee; very extensive strawberry beds were in full flower, and numerous currant bushes in blossom. On the 22d of June, on the summit of Pilgointa Churhai, 12,642 feet above Calcutta, there was not any snow to be seen in the vicinity. The soil collected over the rock was a rich black mould, covered with strawberry plants, not yet in flower, dandelions, buttercups, and a profusion of small flowers; and 500 feet lower was a forest of birch trees, alpine rhododendra, and rage pine. In 1818 the Niti Pass or ghaut was explored by the same officer, when still greater descrepancies with the calculations of theory resulted. The crest of the Niti ghaut was found to be 16,814 feet above the level of the sea, and he estimated the lowest part of the valley of the Sutuleje, which he was prevented visiting by the Chinese functionaries, at 14,924 feet. When seen by Capt. Webb no snow remained on the ghaut or in its neighbourhood, and many quadrupeds pastured on the grassy banks of the Sutuleje.

The next portion of the Himalaya regarding which information comes from European travellers, is that situated between Gangoutri and the chasm where the Sutuleje river forces its way through the mountain, flowing to the south-west. In some parts of this elevated region the heat of the summer dissolves the snow, while in others the cold is so intense as to split and detach large masses of rock, which tumble down with much uproar. This process appears to be in such constant operation, that it must ultimately reduce the altitude of the peaks. The rock is granite of various hues, with a great mixture of white quartz, both in the veins and the nodules. When crossed near to the Sutuleje, in June 1816, snow still lay on the ridge 5,000 feet (by estimation) above the lower line of congelation, and vast beds of a hard surface and steep ascent were passed over. Among the mountains there are villages that are under snow one-half of the year, but in June the climate resembles that of spring in England. These villages stand 6,000 feet above the banks of the Sutuleje, on the banks of which the thermometer in a tent rose to 106° Fahrenheit, yet three days' climbing brings the traveller beyond the line of perpetual congelation.

On the north side of the Himalaya chain, as seen from the low country, a great and steep mass of rock rises on both sides of the Sutuleje, to the

height of about 5,000 feet from its banks. Still higher up is a belt of land susceptible of cultivation, on which are situated the villages of Kunawur, and although the soil is very rocky and poor, coarse grains, apples, pears, raspberries, apricots, and other wild fruits, are produced. Above this is a forest of gigantic pines, which are asserted to be twenty-four feet in circumference, and more than 180 in height. These noble trees are also found on the north side of the Chur mountains, where the snow lies most part of the year. Beyond the forest belt (which also contains oak and other large timber), still ascending, are steep grassy knolls, bare of timber, but presenting laurel and other bushes. The soil here collected among the rocks is black and spongy; but in May and June, and during the rains, it is covered with every variety of wild European spring flowers, such as crocusses, cowslips, and butter-cups. Throughout this alpine country high winds and fogs are troublesome, and a difficulty of respiration is experienced, with a sensation of fulness in the head. Immediately from these grassy and flowery heights rise the steep precipices of the summit, on which the snow fixes wherever it can find a resting-place; but in June much of the rock is disclosed. No volcanic matter has yet been discovered in this quarter.

The third portion of the Himalaya that has been traversed by European travellers lies due north of the Bengal district of Rungpoor, in the kingdom or heirarchy of Bootan, where it was crossed by Capt. Turner in 1783, when sent by Mr. Hastings on an embassy to the Teshoo Lama. That officer had also the advantage of penetrating a long way over the vast Tartarian plateau, into which the descent from the summit of the Himalaya appears inconsiderable when compared with that presented by its southern face. In the latter, all the passes as yet explored are formed by the direction of rivers, which do not appear to rise from any remarkable ridge of mountains, but rather from detached eminences on the table-land of Tibet, and pass south through interruptions or chasms of the Himalaya. From the north-western side of these mountains arise streams tributary to the Indus, and in all probability the Indus itself; those flowing from the north-eastern side, in all likelihood, contribute to increase the volume of the Sanpo river, which probably originates at no great distance from the sources of the Indus, the Sutuleje, and the Jumna. The Himalaya chain, in different parts of its great extent, receives various names, such as Himadri, Himavat, Himachil, and Himalichil, the whole in signification having reference to snow and cold. In the Hindoo pantheon Himalaya is deified, and described as the father of the Ganges, and of her sister Ooma, the spouse of Siva the destroying power. —(*Colebrooke, Messrs. Gerards, Hodgson and Herbert, Webb, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Hindia.—The extreme eastern district in the province of Candeish, but which in the time of Acber was attached to Malwa. To the north it is bounded by the course of the Nerbudda, and on the south by the Calygong (or Caligrama) hills, which have been little explored, but since the Pindary war of 1817-18, having been frequently traversed by British armies, and a detachment permanently stationed at Hussingabad, more complete geographical and statistical information have consequently been obtained. At present the chief towns known are Hindia, Hussingabad, and Charwah; the principal rivers are the Nerbudda and Towah. The north of the Nerbudda, from Kautcote to Nemawur, opposite to Hindia, is deemed by the natives part of Gundwana, the inhabitants speaking the Gond dialect.

Hindia.—A town in the province of Candeish, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda river, the channel of which is here 1,000 yards broad, and during the height of the

monsoon presents a vast expanse of water; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E. It is a place of little strength, but of some importance, from its commanding some of the best ghauts or fords over the Nerbudda. It is the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, but in 1820 was still occupied by the British. On the opposite side of the river is a remarkable Hindoo pagoda, the sculpture of which is said to have been much defaced by the armies of Aurungzebe when he waged war in the Deccan.

Hindown.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty-five miles S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 47′ N., lon. 76° 54′ E. This place belongs to the Raja of Jeypoor, and was formerly a large town, but owing to the depredation of the Maharattas and other plunderers became greatly reduced; but, since the province has been relieved from these oppressors, has again the appearance of a thriving place. Like other old towns in this neighbourhood, many of the houses are built either wholly or in part of a fine dark red sandstone, cut in large quadrangular masses, and well polished. There are also two spacious chowks of the same material, with a Hindoo temple in each, both built in imitation of the Mahomedan style of architecture.—(*Hunter, Fullerton, &c.*)

Hindoo Cosh Mountains.—The range of mountains (a continuation of the Himalaya chain) from the north of Cashmere to the high snowy peak, nearly north from the city of Cabul, a distance of about 440 geographical miles, is usually distinguished by the name of Hindoo Cosh, but when, as in this instance, a chain of hills is of considerable extent, there is great difficulty in assigning a just name to the whole, the natives having generally a distinct one for each particular point, peak, or section. The ridge has an east and west direction for the above distance, appears to wind within 34° and 36° north latitude. From the north-eastern point of Cashmere eastward it receives the name of Himalaya. From Cashmere to the peak of Hindoo Cosh above-mentioned, all the rivers that rise north of the range have a north-west course, except the Indus and Kameh, which are forced to the southward by other high ridges extending at right angles to the main one, and all the rivers that rise south of the Hindoo Cosh chain have a southerly course. The height of one of the peaks of this chain, seen from Peshawer by the embassy in 1809, was estimated at 20,493 feet, and on the range connected with it the snow remains in June, while the thermometer in the valley of Peshawer rises to 113° of Fahrenheit.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Hindoor (*Indur*).—A hill principality in Northern Hindostan, situated in the tract of country between the Sutuleje and Jumna. It was conquered by the Gorkhas and its raja, Ramsurren, compelled to fly to the plains; but with the exception of Malown he was subsequently restored to all his possessions by the British government. In 1815 the revenues of Hindoor from the hill-territories amounted to about 15,000 rupees, and from the plains to about 30,000, making a total of 45,000 rupees. The land here is distributed rather with reference to produce and soil than to measurement, into divisions called tukas, from every ton of which the raja exacts two maunds of grain and two rupees.—(*Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

HINDOSTAN.

(*Hindust'han.*)

This extensive region is situated in the south-eastern quarter of Asia, where it is nearly comprehended between the latitudes of 8° and 35° north, and the longitudes of 68° and 92° east. The extreme length from north to south is about 1,900 miles, and from east to west about 1,500; but, on account of the irregularity of its figure, the total superficial area cannot be estimated at more than 1,280,000 English square miles.

According to the ancients, India on its most enlarged scale composed an extent of forty degrees on each side, including a space nearly as large as all Europe; being divided on the west from Persia by the Arachosian mountains; limited on the east by the Chinese parts of the peninsula beyond the Ganges; confined on the north by the wilds of Tartary, and stretching south as far as the Sunda Isles. These expanded limits comprehended the stupendous hills of Tibet, the romantic valley of Cashmere, and all the domains of the old Indo-Scythians, the countries of Nepaul, Bootan, Camroop, and Assam, together with Siam, Ava, Arracan, and the bordering kingdoms as far as China of the Hindoos, and the Sin of the Arabian geographers, the whole western peninsula, and the island of Ceylon.

It is difficult to discover any name applied by the Brahmins to the country over which their doctrines have prevailed, and which they generally describe by a circumlocution. Sometimes they give it the epithet of Medhyama, or central (from its occupying the centre of the back of the tortoise which supports the world,) and Punyabhumi, or the land of virtue, and assert it to have been the portion of Bharat, one of nine brothers whose father ruled the whole earth, and named after him Bharatkhand. This domain of Bharat they consider the centre of Jambudwipa, which the Tibetians call the land of Zambu. At other times the Brahmins describe their country as the space between the Himalaya mountains and Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon, for Cape Comorin as a geographical point never appears to have attracted any attention. The modern name of Hindostan is a Persian appellation, derived from the words Hindoo, black, and st'han place, but it has been adopted for ages back both by natives and foreigners.

By the Mahomedan writers the term Hindostan is understood to signify the country in immediate subjection to the sovereigns of Delhi, which in A.D. 1582 was subdivided by the Emperor Acber into eleven soubahs or provinces, most of which, notwithstanding the frequent political revolutions they have since experienced, still nearly retain their original geographical limits. The names of these provinces are Lahore, Moultan, Ajmeer, Delhi, Agra, Allahabad, Bahar, Oude, Bengal, Malwa, and Gujerat. A twelfth soubah was formed of Cabul and the countries west of the Indus, and also Cashmere; and three new ones were afterwards added from conquests made in the Deccan, viz. Berar, Candeish, and Ahmednuggur, afterwards named Aurungabad.

In modern times the limits of Hindostan have generally been considered as co-extensive with those of the Hindoo religion, which delineation having also the advantage of being singularly well defined on three sides by strong natural barriers, is the one adhered to throughout the following work. According to this arrangement Hindostan is separated on the north from the table-land of Tibet by the lofty chain of Himalaya mountains, which commences at the Indus about the 35th degree of north latitude, and passing Cashmere in the same parallel, extends from thence in a south-easterly direction to an unascertained distance beyond Bootan. To the south Hindostan is every where bounded by the ocean, and on the west by the course of the river Indus. To the east its limits are more difficult to define; but the most distinct are the range of hills and forest that skirt the Bengal districts of Chittagong and Tiperah, and stretch north to the Brahmaputra, near to where that great river, after having long flowed almost due west, makes a sudden sweep to the south. In this north-east corner the Hindoo religion is irregularly diffused, as it extends beyond the limits assigned into Assam, Cachar, and other petty states, while that of Buddha prevails in Bootan, and protrudes into the Brahminical regions

on the banks of the Teesta. Circumscribed within the boundaries above specified, Hindostan presents four grand geographical divisions, *viz.*

1st. Northern Hindostan.—This extensive and rugged territory commences on the west at the Sutuleje river, from whence it stretches in an easterly direction, slanting to the south, until it reaches the Teesta river, in longitude 88° 30′ E., beyond which, among the mountains, the Lama religion prevails. To the north it is separated from Tibet or Southern Tartary by the Himalaya; on the south, from the old Mogul provinces by the line where the lower ranges of hills press on the vast Gangetic plain. The principal modern territorial and political subdivisions are the following:

1. The country between the Sutuleje and Jumna.
2. Gurwal or Serinagur.
3. The sources of the Ganges.
4. Kumaon.
5. Painkhandi.
6. Bhutant.
7. The dominions of Nepaul.

The inhabitants of these alpine tracts having, until times quite recent, had but little intercourse with the plains, are comparatively much behind in knowledge and civilization; which may also be partly attributed to their having attracted the attention of the Brahmins at a much later period than their richer neighbours in the south.

2d. Hindostan Proper.—This is by far the most comprehensive division, as it reaches south to the Nerbudda river, where the Deccan commences, and includes the eleven large provinces (each equal to a kingdom) formed by the emperor Acber, as also Cashmere and Cutch, *viz.*

1. Bengal.	8. Cashmere.
2. Bahar.	9. Ajmeer.
3. Allahabad.	10. Mooltan.
4. Oude.	11. Cutch.
5. Agra.	12. Gujerat.
6. Delhi.	13. Malwa.
7. Lahore	

These provinces have long been celebrated for their richness and fertility, and contain the seats of the most powerful Mahomedan empires, having been repeatedly subjugated by the more hardy tribes of the north. The generality of the inhabitants are a superior race to the population of the other divisions, possessing a more robust frame of body, besides surpassing them in energy of intellect. Among the Hindoos, Hindostan Proper, contradistinguished from the southern peninsula and eastern India (Dacshin and Purb), is named the Medhya Des, or central country.

3d. The third grand division is the Deccan, which is bounded on the north by the course of the Nerbudda river, and easterly from its source by an imaginary line, extending in the same parallel of latitude to the south of the Hooghly, or western branch of the Ganges. To the south the boundaries of the Deccan are the rivers Krishna and Toombudra; to the east the Bay of Bengal; and to the west the Indian Ocean. Within these limits the following large provinces are nearly comprehended, *viz.*

1. Gundwana.	5. Berar.
2. Orissa.	6. Beeder.
3. The Northern Circars.	7. Hyderabad.
	8. Aurungabad.
4. Candeish.	9. Bejapoor.

4th. India South of the Krishna.—This division is frequently named the peninsula, although its figure more resembles an equilateral triangle, of which the northern boundary at the river Krishna is the base; the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar the sides; with the apex at Cape Comorin. The modern territorial and political subdivisions are the following, *viz.*

1. Canara.	6. Mysore.
2. Malabar.	7. Coimbatoor.
3. Cochin.	8. Salem and the Barramahal.
4. Travancore.	
5. The Balaghaut Ceded Districts.	9. The Carnatic.

There are few sea-coasts of such extent so destitute of islands as that of Hindostan; indeed, excluding emerged sand-banks and mere rocks, it may be said to possess only one, Ceylon, with which the geographical

survey in this quarter terminates. Proceeding on, the next objects that come under consideration are the boundary countries, which are the following, commencing on the south-west:

1. Baloochistan.
2. Afghanistan.
3. Tibet.
4. Northern Hindostan.
5. Bootan.
6. Assam.
7. States adjacent to Assam.
8. Ava and the Burmese empire.

The size and relative position of the different countries will be more satisfactorily learned from an inspection of the map prefixed than from any written explanation, however minute; and each of them being described in their alphabetical order, for further local details the reader is referred to the distinct heads respectively, what observations follow having reference to Hindostan in general.

Viewed on a grand scale, the principal geological features of this region are the vast Gangetic plain, the great sandy desert of the Indus, the elevated table-land above the ghauts, and the *Himalayan*, Vindhyan, and Ghaut chains of mountains, with their subordinate ranges. There are no lakes of any considerable magnitude, but many morasses, especially an enormous saline one named the Runn. There are no volcanoes in a state of activity, nor is the existence of extinct ones any where clearly established. Earthquakes, although frequent, with the exception of one in Cutch in 1819, have never been destructive. The seasons, winds, and rains are periodical, and throughout the whole space what are called monsoons more or less prevail. Within the geographical limits of Hindostan every degree of temperature may be found, from burning heat to perpetual congelation; but, with the exception of an alpine tract among the northern mountains, the climate is strictly tropical, and promotes the growth of all congenial fruits, plants, and vegetables, in the most luxuriant profusion, although the soil in most parts wants strength and tenacity. Minerals are abundant, but little worked; and there are few countries that spontaneously produce so great a variety of saline substances. Examined more minutely, the physical geology of Hindostan may be considered as resolving itself into three great divisions, viz.

1st. The peninsular tract which constitutes the south of India.

2d. The belt of flat country extending from sea to sea, and distinguished by the name of Middle India.

3d. The continental mountains which form the northern limits of India, rising between the middle region and the vast plateau of Southern Tartary, and extending more than fifteen degrees of longitude, in a direction from W.N.W. to E.S.E.

In the champaign country of Middle India three principal divisions may be noticed: 1st. the tract watered by the Ganges and its tributary streams; 2d. a tract watered by the Indus; and 3dly. the intermediate desert in which the river Saraswati loses itself. Of this division a principal feature is the total absence of pebbles or rolled stones of any kind, except in the beds of the rivers for a few miles after they quit the hills; and the soil of the plains is every where earthy and comminuted, except in certain instances, where indurated nodules or concretions have been found. Throughout this extensive plain there is neither mine nor quarry. The banks of the rivers being usually precipitous on one side and shelving on the other, exhibit sections of strata down to the level of their beds; but scarcely any other natural section is to be found: the sinking of wells and boring for water is consequently the only opportunity that presents itself for the examination of the strata. The surface of this level tract is every where alluvial, and the strata, as far as they go, horizontal. Beneath the superficial mould the subsoil is sand, clay, or loam in layers, more or less inter-

mixed, and distinguished by colour or texture. In the inferior strata of clay, nodules or concretions of the same substance are to be met with. The whole basis of the Deccan and south of India is supposed to be granite.

But the glory of Hindostan is its noble rivers, and more especially the venerable Ganges, which at once fertilises the soil, and serves for the transport of its matured productions. During the rainy season the mountain torrents swell in a wonderful manner, and within a few hours frequently rise twenty feet above their usual level, rushing down with much uproar and rapidity. The larger streams generally begin to increase before the rains fall in the low countries, which circumstance is equally remarked of rivers that do not spring from cold countries, such as the Nerbudda and Tuptee, as it is of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, whose sources benefit by the snows of Himalaya. In the dry season they proceed to the ocean over their broad sandy beds with a slow and sluggish stream, but when swelled by the periodical rains their course is furious, and destructive to the villages placed too near its banks. On the other hand, some rivers, such as the Seraswati, mentioned in ancient Hindoo writings as being of great bulk and importance, have in latter times either disappeared, or been nearly absorbed by the thirsty soil. In general the rivers have retained their original appellations better than the cities or provinces, the latter having often had their designations altered from vanity or religious motives. The following are the names of the principal streams, with their probable length of course to the sea; but there are many others omitted that would be reckoned large rivers in Europe.

	Miles to the sea.
Indus	1,700
Ganges	1,500
Jumna (to its junction with the Ganges 780)	1,500
Sutuleje (to the Indus 900)	1,400
Jhylum (ditto 750)	1,250
Gunduck (to the Ganges 450)	980

In the Deccan and South of India:

The Godavery	850
Krishna	700
Nerbudda	700
Mahanuddy	550
Tuptee	400
Cavery	400

The harvest in Hindostan Proper is divided into two periods: the first is cut in September and October; the second in March and April. Rice is the grand article of nourishment, and the chief object of attention in the cultivation of it is to have the soil plentifully supplied with water. Indeed, while travelling through India, a tolerably correct judgment may be formed of the wisdom of the government and condition of the people, from viewing the number and state of preservation of the tanks, water-courses, and other conduits for the irrigation of the fields. Wheat is the food of the higher classes in the provinces between the Nerbudda and Sutuleje, but the poorer classes are obliged to resort to substances of a much coarser and unsavoury nature. In this country the wages of the labouring cultivators are limited to a mere subsistence, which is not the case in Europe. In the latter, the labourer's expenditure consists not only of food, but also of many accessaries, such as a cottage, furniture, clothing, and liquor, so that in times of scarcity when grain becomes dear, he finds a temporary resource in abstaining from, or parting with, some of these superfluities. The working classes of Hindostan are not so well circumstanced, for their wages being little more than the mere expense of their food, they are utterly destitute if it rise, having no reserve for emergencies.

That the Hindoos were in early ages a commercial people we have many reasons to believe; and in the first of their sacred law tracts, which they suppose to have been revealed by Menu, many millions of years ago, there is a curious passage respecting the legal interest of money, and the limited rate of it in different cases, with an exception in regard to

adventures by sea. The three great articles of general importation by the Greeks and Romans were, first, spices; secondly, precious stones and pearls; thirdly, silk. Their exports to India were woollen cloth of a slight fabric, linen in chequer-work, some precious stones, and some aromatics unknown in India, coral, storax, glass vessels of different kinds, wrought silver, Italian, Greek, and Arabian wines, brass, tin, lead, girdles, sashes, melilot, white glass, red arsenic, black lead, and gold and silver. Of the last-mentioned metal the influx to Hindostan has always been very great, as the inhabitants have always sold much and purchased little: the balance has consequently always been in their favour. A great deal of bullion is supposed to be annually lost by being concealed under ground by the natives, many of whom die without revealing the site of their hidden treasure, and the practice of hoarding is among all ranks of Hindoos almost universal. During many centuries, cotton piece-goods were the grand staple of Hindostan; but latterly, owing to the great improvements in Europe, the quantity exported has considerably diminished. The various sorts fabricated in different provinces from Cape Comorin to the northern mountains, are too numerous to admit of particular detail; and for further information regarding the agriculture, manufactures, and commerce of Hindostan, the reader is referred to the provinces and cities respectively. In the mean time it may safely be asserted, that with so vast an extent of fertile soil, peopled by so many millions of tractable and industrious inhabitants, Hindostan is capable of supplying the whole world with any species of tropical merchandise, the production, in fact, being only limited by the demand.

India was very little known to the Greeks until Alexander's expedition, about 327 years before Christ. The following particulars, selected from the ancient descriptions of India by Arrian and other authors, will show how nearly the ancient inhabitants resemble the present.

1. The slender make of their bodies.

2. Their living on vegetable food.

3. Marriage at seven years of age, and the prohibition of marriage between different castes.

4. The men wearing ear-rings and party-coloured shoes, also veils covering the head and part of the shoulders.

5. Daubing their faces with colours.

6. Only principal persons having umbrellas carried over them.

7. Two-handed swords, and bows drawn by the feet.

8. The manner of taking elephants the same as the present.

9. Manufactures of cottons of extraordinary whiteness; and the plant named carpas-us as at present.

10. Monstrous ants, by which the termites or white ants are meant.

11. Wooden houses on the banks of large rivers, to be occasionally removed, as the river changes its course.

12. The tala or tal tree, a kind of palm.

13. The banyan trees, and the Indian devotees sitting under them.

A greater degree of similarity exists between the East-Indian metaphysical doctrines and that of the earlier rather than the later Greeks; and, as it is scarcely probable that the communication should have taken place, and the knowledge been imparted at the precise interval of time which intervened between the earlier and later schools of Greek philosophy, and especially between the Pythagoreans and Platonists, there is reason to believe that, in this instance, at least, the Indians were the teachers, instead of the scholars, as some have asserted.

The Greeks have not left us any means of knowing with accuracy what vernacular languages were prevalent in India on their arrival. The radical language of India is the Sanscrit, of which such is the antiquity, that neither history nor tradition has

preserved any account of a people of whom it was the living tongue. From this source the most ancient derivatives are the Prakrit, the Bali, and the Zend. The first is the language which contains the greater part of the sacred books of the Jainas; the Bali or Pali is equally revered among the followers of Buddha; while the Zend, or sacred language of ancient Persia, has long enjoyed a similar rank among the worshippers of fire, and been the depository of the sacred books of Zoroaster. There is reason to believe that ten polished dialects formerly prevailed in as many civilized nations, which occupied the whole extent of Hindostan. The Saraswata, the Kanoje, the Gour, the Maithila, and the Orissa, are denominated the five Gours; the five Dravirs are, the Tamul, the Maharatta, the Carnata, the Telinga, and the Gujara. The modern dialects are the following, and have nine-tenths of their words in common, the basis of the whole being the Sanscrit; and except the Hindostany, which is the universal language of intercourse, they are all local.

The Hindostany,	The Harowty,
Bengalese,	Malwa,
Cashmerian,	Bruj,
Dogura,	Bundlecundy,
Ooch,	Maharatta,
Sindy,	Magadha,
Cutch,	Koshala,
Gujeratty,	Maithila,
Concanese,	Nepaulese,
Punjaby,	Orissa,
Bicanere,	Telinga,
Marwar,	Carnata,
Jeypoor,	Tamul.
Odeypoor,	

On the east we find the Sanscrit language arrested by the Khasee, the Birman, and other Indo-Chinese languages, and on the west by the Pushtoo, or Afghan, and the Baloochy.

That any general similitude of manners existed before the Mahomedan invasion is very doubtful, but certainly there are in modern times strong shades of difference in the characters of the Hindoos dispersed over the several provinces. Travelling though Hindostan, from Cape Comorin for example, up the Carnatic, the Deccan, and through Bengal to Cashmere, an extent of country of above twenty-five degrees of latitude, under many general points of resemblance, a very great variety of habits, languages, and religious observances is perceptible, nearly as great as a native of India would remark were he journeying from Gibraltar to St. Petersburgh. The character of the Maharattas, nurtured in war and depredation, differs much from the placid Tamuls of the south, and the unmartial population of Bengal. Those who inhabit the northern territories from the Nerbudda to the Indus, are almost all (or pretend to be) of a military tribe; the caste of Rajpoots or Rajwars, who are governed by petty chiefs, and divided into small principalities, which, until reluctantly compelled to adopt more pacific habits, were engaged in never-ceasing conflict with each other. The difference between the industrious manufacturing classes and the Nair of Malabar, the Poligar of the Carnatic, and the turbulent Grassia of Malwa and Gujerat, is very great; and as to the tribes of Catties, Coolies, Babreas, Mhairs, Jhuts, Meannas, Mewaties, &c., they are rather objects of police than legislation. What one would view as means of safety and protection, another would consider tyrannical and insupportable. A want of attention to local usages, and a desire to regulate our administration by general rules, often in direct violation of them, has frequently had the effect of rendering the British government more unpopular than it ever would have become through the grossest violence and oppression.

The great mass of the Hindoos and Mahomedans throughout Hindostan has nearly attained the same stage of civilization; but intermixed with these are certain races of mountaineers, probably the true aborigines, whose languages have little affinity with the Sanscrit, and whose customs retain all their primitive barbarity. The most remarkable of these are the

Gonds, Bheels, and Coolies; but there are many others of less note, such as the hill people of Boglipoor, the Garrows, and the Kookies of Chittagong. In the capital settlements, and in the larger towns within the British dominions, some few of the natives attempt to imitate the manners of Europeans, and almost adopt their dress; but they receive no encouragement from the class they are endeavouring to conciliate, and invariably lose the estimation of their own tribe in proportion as they deviate from its usages.

The two great religious persuasions of Hindostan are the Hindoo and Mahomedan, whose relative numbers throughout the whole empire are probably in the proportion of seven the first to one of the last. By Europeans the term Hindoo is in general so very loosely and inaccurately applied, as to include religions, such as the Buddhist and Jain, professing tenets in direct opposition to the Brahminical system. Indeed, Hindoo mythology is a subject as inexhaustible as it is difficult to render intelligible, and can only be slightly touched upon; but, viewed on the most favourable side, the following may be considered a tolerably exact sketch of its doctrines.

The great deity Brahm remains in holy obscurity, and superstition is never allowed to profane his name, which is always kept clear of fiction. Three energies, however, the creating, preserving, and destroying, are embodied under the names of Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, to each of whom a female or passive energy is attached. These have all human forms, diversified by the imagination in various ways; and as the two last are supposed to have descended many times, each avatar or incarnation furnishes a distinct deity, to whom worship is addressed. Of the three specified Brahma alone has no incarnations, and is never worshipped. Some of the avatars are supposed to have been incarnations of the whole god, while others are considered only partial emanations of the divinity. Besides these three principal gods there is a whole pantheon of minor deities. The sea, the winds, the heavens, the elements, the sun, moon, and stars, every river, fountain and stream, is either a deity in itself, or has a divinity presiding over it, nothing being done without the intervention of supernatural power. Descending still lower, there are myriads of demigods, of a most extraordinary description, and numerous beyond the powers of calculation. A little red paint smeared over a stone, a lump of clay, or the stump of a tree, converts it into a god, worshipped by the lower classes, and saluted by the upper with much apparent devotion. Any monster, any figure partly brutal, any multiplicity of heads and hands in the object adored, indicate a Brahminical place of worship. The presence of umbrella-covered pyramids or semi-globes, and of plain human figures sitting cross-legged, or standing in a meditative posture, point out a temple or excavation of the Buddhists; the twenty-four saintly figures without the pyramid announce a temple of the Jain.

Five great sects of Hindoos worship exclusively a single deity; one recognizes the five divinities that are reverenced by the other sects respectively; but the followers of this comprehensive scheme mostly select one object of daily adoration, and perform rites to the other deities on particular occasions only. The worship of Rama and Krishna, of Siva and Bhavani, appears to have been introduced since the persecution of the Buddhists and Jains. The establishment of the Vedas was anterior to Buddha, whose theology seems to have been borrowed from the system of Capila, who forbid the slaughtering of animals; but the overthrow of the Buddhist sect in Hindostan has not effected the full revival of the religious system inculcated by the Vedas. Most of what is there taught is now obsolete, and in its stead new orders of devotees have arisen, with new forms of religious ceremonies. Rituals founded on the Puranas and

Tantras have in a great measure antiquated the institutions of the Vedas, a remarkable instance of which is the sacrifice of animals before the goddess Cali; and the adoration of Rama and Krishna have succeeded to that of the elements and planets. Sir William Jones was of opinion that we might fix the incarnation of Buddha, or ninth incarnation of Vishnu, in the year 1014 before the birth of our Saviour. The earliest accounts of India by the Greeks who visited it with Alexander, describe the inhabitants as divided into separate tribes, consequently a sect like the modern *Buddhists could not have* been the most prevalent. No modern nation of equal civilization remains so completely infatuated as the Hindoos are with conviction of the potency of magic, to the effect of which every event, good or bad, is attributed. Their religious rites have, in fact, degenerated to mere incantations, all directed to the attainment of some end through the efficacy of a spell; and the requisite ceremonies have become so numerous and intricate, that no votary could accomplish them were he to devote day and night to their performance.

The Hindoo religion is without any acknowledged individual superior or public convocation; but the pre-eminence of the Brahmins is never disputed by the other castes. The true derivation of this sacred order remains involved in obscurity; but at present the impression of many orientalists is, that they were originally strangers from Persia, or some portion of central Asia, and it is quite certain that the Brahminical religion formerly prevailed far west of the Indus. Even now their advance eastward is progressive. In the north-eastern parts of Bengal, Brahmins are a recent importation, the rude natives of that quarter not having long acknowledged their vast superiority, or submitted to their distinctions *of purity and impurity*. It is a mistake to suppose the Brahmins do not admit of proselytes. They certainly never dreamed of admitting any stranger to a participation of their own rank, the distance being utterly immeasurable; but where it suits their interest, they have no objections to class them with the military and working classes, and even condescend to perform certain ceremonies for the barbarians, which is a virtual admission within the pale of the Brahminical church. Tribes altogether vile are those for whom no person of the sacred order will perform any ceremony, unless they renounce their impure habits; and, in reality, wherever Brahmins penetrate among savage tribes, a gradual and *regular conversion immediately* follows.

The division of people into castes is the paramount distinction between the Brahminical Hindoos and the votaries of Buddha; but strict adherence to the peculiar duties of each caste having probably been found impracticable, they have been compelled to relax the spirit of the law, and to admit of numerous exceptions. The peculiar duty of a Brahmin is to meditate on things divine; and the proper manner of his procuring a subsistence is by begging, every species of industry being derogatory to his rank. The majority of Brahmins may and do eat animal food; priests, while officiating as such, perhaps do not; but, though all priests are Brahmins, all Brahmins are not priests. The right of bearing arms, which in early times was confined to the military caste of Khetries, has latterly been found diffused through all classes, and Brahmins may be daily seen standing in the ranks as common soldiers. It is probable that the institution of a distinct military caste had the effect of eradicating martial habits from the mass of the population, and contributed greatly to facilitate their subjugation by foreigners. It is generally, but erroneously supposed, that persons of the same caste will communicate and eat together all over India: but this is by no means the case, the intercourse being confined to a few families only in their own immediate neighbour-

hood, and, as far as refers to them, the residue of the same tribe are in a manner outcasts. There is something, however, so fascinating to the natives of India in the doctrine of caste, that the Malabar Christians, notwithstanding their conversion to a religion that sanctions no distinction, have not been able to free themselves from it; and the lower classes of Mahomedans throughout Hindostan shew a remarkable proneness towards its adoption.

So far as the distinction of caste checks progressive improvement, and permanently degrades a large portion of the people, it is injurious to society; but so far as they perpetuate the arts, and tend to prevent further deterioration, as they repress irregular passions, and promote tranquillity and subordination, their influence is beneficial. In a country and climate predisposed to improvement, the shackles of caste must be a curse; but where retrogression of intellect is much more to be apprehended, they are decidedly useful. Hindostan has hitherto belonged to the last description of nations, and has consequently been upheld in the scale of civilization by the doctrine of caste. At present its destiny seems altered, and it may be expected the Brahminical system will be gradually relaxed, and at last, whether for the better or the worse, disappear. A great error, however, may be committed by unduly accelerating this event, or attempting prematurely to overthrow an ancient system before the people are prepared for the change.

The Hindoos believe that by the performance of extreme penances and austerities mortals may acquire supernatural power, and carelessness, or rather prodigality of life, has always been a remarkable feature in their character. Besides a meritorious suffering for their faith, suicide is in many cases legal and commendable, such as the immolation of a widow with her husband's corpse. These sacrifices (called suttees) are almost unknown in many parts of Southern India, and in the countries of the Deccan, Malwa, and Upper Hindostan, are of rare occurrence. Indeed the practice is most prevalent in the immediate vicinity of Calcutta, where more than half of all the suttees in Bengal are perpetrated. In establishing their places of religious pilgrimage, the Hindoos have always shewn a great predilection for places near the sea, the sources and junctions of rivers, the tops of remarkable hills, hot springs, caves, waterfalls, in short, any natural phenomenon, the access to which happens to be difficult or dangerous. Of late years a great many of their holiest fanes have had their reputation for sanctity considerably tarnished in consequence of their having been visited and examined by Europeans, but more especially by the improved system of internal police, which has abstracted all mystery from the journey, and rendered the pilgrimage too easy to be meritorious. The following are the names of several places that still retain a considerable portion of their original celebrity, which must be expected, however, annually to diminish.

Juggernauth.	Gangoutri.
Benares.	Joalamukhi.
Gaya.	Omercuntuc.
Allahabad.	Trimbuck Nasser.
Tripety.	Perwuttum.
Dwaraca.	Parkur.
Somnauth.	Mathura.
Ramisseram.	Bindrabund.
Lake Manasarovara.	

The Ganges, on account of the peculiar sanctity of its waters, is worshipped throughout its whole course, but there are particular spots on its banks held more sacred than others; they also venerate in an inferior degree many other rivers. Most of the holy places above enumerated are situated very distant apart, yet appear from the remotest antiquity to have had a constant influx of pilgrims from every quarter of Hindostan; which apparently ought to have had the effect of improving their geographical system, and of promoting

a general knowledge of each other. But no such beneficial effect ever resulted, and, owing to the total want of historical records among the Hindoos, any fable that has been retailed for 100 years, comes down to the existing race with an origin as obscure as if it had been established for a thousand.

The modern Mahomedans may with safety be estimated at one-seventh of the total population; and notwithstanding the subversion of their political predominance by a Christian power, their religion continues to expand. They are no longer, however, the sanguinary zealots who, eight hundred years ago, in the name of God and the prophet, spread desolation and slaughter among the unconverted pagans. Open violence produced little effect on so patient a people, and although the Mahomedans subsequently lived for centuries intermixed with Hindoos, no radical change was produced in the manners or tenets of the latter; on the contrary, for almost a century past, the Mahomedans have evinced much deference to the prejudices of their Hindoo neighbours, and a strong predilection towards many of their ceremonies. The higher ranks of Mahomedans in general abstain from making offerings to the gods of the pagans; but the multitude in their distresses have recourse to the idols, and even make offerings on festivals; whereas it is the higher ranks of the Hindoos who are chiefly addicted to the propitiation of Mahomedan saints.

The next religious sect of sufficient importance to deserve notice is the Christian, which probably throughout Hindostan comprehends about half a million of souls, almost all the descendants of the ancient Christian stocks, and, relatively to the other classes, existing under circumstances of degradation. The pride of caste among the Hindoos does not singly account for the contempt felt and shewn by the followers of the Brahminical system towards them, no such contempt being manifested to the Mahomedans, or to the European Christians. There are undoubtedly circumstances of diet and cleanliness which tend to lower the Nazarene in the eyes both of the Mahomedan and Hindoo, and the European holding himself aloof from the native Christian, no portion of the veneration which the first attracts is reflected on his humble brother in religion. Were it practicable to raise the lower part of the chain without lowering the upper, the Christian might, like the Mahomedan, become a tribe holding a respectable station in the mixed society of India; and until some such improvement is effected, the temporary causes that oppose the conversion of the Hindoos will continue to operate. Conviction does not easily reach the mind of an individual who, by becoming a proselyte, must descend from a decent rank in society to one degraded and discountenanced; whereas were he encouraged, not merely by the number but also by the reflective lustre of those, who, although of a different origin and complexion, unite with him in faith, he would soon have numerous associates.

With a view to the creation of so important a link in the chain, combined with other reasons, a gradual extension of the colonizing system has been recommended by Mr. Colebrooke. Considered as a measure of policy, a Christian population holding a decent rank in the motley throng of tribes and castes, would tend to consolidate the strength of the state, and add to the probable duration of the empire. A colonization of the nature alluded to, far from being likely to terminate in a separation of the colony, would rather serve to perpetuate the union, by the addition of a tribe whose interest and doctrines must attach them to their European superiors. With habits more analogous to those of Europe, the Creole Christians would certainly be better customers for its productions than the other sects. For the furtherance of such an object, all that is necessary is to allow the natural course of events to take effect, without either encouragement or restraint, and to permit

Europeans and their legitimate progeny to settle in India and acquire property. As present it is only the illegitimate offspring that is thus privileged, while the legitimate descendant is prohibited from obtaining a property in the soil of his birth. A gradual increase of the illegitimate race, in fact, constitutes a progressive colonization: but it proceeds less rapidly than might have been expected, being absorbed into the classes immediately above and below it. On the one side, by the intermarriages of the females with European sojourners; and on the other it melts into the dark native Christian. Colonization, in the usual sense of the term, is never likely to take place in Hindostan, as no inducement exists to attract the common labourer or artizan. The voluntary resort would be confined to merchants, traders and factors; to navigators and seamen of a superior class; to master planters and overseers of plantations, and to the civil and military servants of the government: but the influx of emigrants would never be in such numbers as to interfere with the ordinary employment of the native population. In process of time, however, when ages shall have passed away, should the increase of a Christian Creole population terminate in a separation, which is, however, more likely to happen from other causes, the event when it arrives will be advantageous to both parties, and its approaching maturity hailed as a common benefit.

The historical notices procurable in India are usually either mere traditions preserved among ignorant people, or legends mixed with the most monstrous fables: for it may be safely asserted that the Hindoos have nothing deserving of being dignified with the name of history, or which could with propriety be denominated a chronicle. Indeed it is quite unaccountable how, in the midst of such a mass of mythological fable, their priests and bards did not by accident stumble on some historical or chronological fact. The wars between the princes considered as incarnations, Vishnu, and the Asuras or demons, such as Ravana, have reference no doubt to a period when the worship of certain gods was in recent vigour, and the sectaries of each were contending for superiority. There is also reason to believe that the Yavana, so often mentioned, were the Macedonians of Bactria, who obtained large possessions in the north-west quarter, where, about the time of the Mahomedan invasion, the family of Palas claimed universal dominion. The dynasties of the princes named after the sun and moon seem to have governed Hindostan from the earliest times, and each branched out into numerous lines that shared the country between them, while sometimes the one and sometimes the other proved most potent, and furnished the prince, who was considered the paramount lord of India. The power possessed by these sovereigns appears to have consisted of three privileges: each prince sent him annually an embassy with presents; he bestowed the tika, or mark of investiture, on each heir when he succeeded to the throne; and he had a right to interfere to prevent the stronger of his nominal vassals from completely subjugating the weaker. The prerogative last mentioned was probably limited to persuasion, as he possessed no means of enforcing a co-operation among them. For the chronology of Hindostan since the Mahomedan invasion, the reader is referred to the words GHIZNI and DELHI; that of each province, city, and district is given as they respectively occur.

For more than a century past the native governments of Hindostan have been in a perpetual state of fluctuation, conquest being avowed as the first and legitimate pursuit of every sovereign, and the sole source of glory and renown. In such a condition of society, the views of ambition can alone be bounded by inability to prosecute them. Besides this, so far from having any political system, the strength of which would

have afforded protection to the feebler states, exactly the reverse was the case; the object of every native chief separately, and of all collectively, being to destroy the weak. Internally the constitution of a native state is an unmixed despotism, every movement originating with the government, to the power of which there is no limit except the endurance of the people, the sovereign's will being never opposed but by a general insurrection. The consequence is, that the great bulk of the population entertain no attachment to any set of political principles, or to any form of government; and they have been so long accustomed to revolution and frequent change of sovereigns, that they obey with little repugnance whoever is placed over them, expecting his sway, like that of his predecessor, will be transitory. They are solicitous for the toleration of their religious doctrines, rites, and prejudices, the security of their domestic concerns, and the prosperity of their particular villages; but are totally destitute of what is understood in Europe by the term patriotism. Indeed the system of village government throughout India presents the only instance of permanent territorial cohesion counteracting the evils incident to despotism, and serves to account for the flourishing condition of many tracts of country from which all government whatever appears to be withdrawn.

Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that the natives do not look upon the crime of treason against the state in the light we do. In fidelity and attachment to a master or chief they are not surpassed by any people: but those who stand in the relation of subjects, without being in the service or pay of the supreme power, do not feel themselves bound by any very strong tie of allegiance. They have no idea of loyalty and disloyalty but to the masters who support them, and their ideas run equally counter to all European notions of civil liberty. In adverting to the incessant revolutions of these countries, it is a remarkable fact, that in all the schemes of polity, whether of the victors or the vanquished, the idea of civil liberty in any shape never seems to have been contemplated, and is to this day without a name in the languages of India. The Seiks, when they rejected the Brahminical religion, exhibited the first and only approach, however imperfect, to republican principles. In reality our native subjects have been as remarkable for their cheerful submission to power, as for a want of moderation, an unsteady disposition, and a spirit of encroachment and litigation, when suffered to indulge these evil propensities. They have been accustomed to be governed by the sword, a species of rule which they comprehend, and even seem to like. No country in the world can exhibit a more cheerful and apparently happy class of people, than the native sepoys in in the British service, which disposition, with the many other good qualities they are known to possess, may in a considerable degree be attributed to the salutary discipline and subordination they are subjected to.

In Hindostan there are no titles of nobility exactly similar to those of Europe, nor are they in general hereditary. According to oriental ideas, honours or titles conferred by the sovereign must be accompanied by a jaghire, and generally by a military command along with the title, which is in itself considered merely as an appellation attached to the acquisition of emolument or power; and it is quite impossible to impress the minds of the natives with the value of a mere name. On this subject their ideas are more simple and natural than our's. If an unfit person receive a patent for the title of ameer or raja, he would not be able to retain it: for when a man has nothing left of dignity but the name, in India, that also soon fades away. On the other hand, if a Hindoo should emerge from poverty and obscurity, and attain wealth and celebrity, he would,

if he wished it, be saluted raja; he would be considered as having acquired a claim to the title, in the same manner as other persons acquire, by learning, the titles of moulavy and pundit, which becomes, among the mass of the people, inseparably attached to their names. Elevation of rank and increase of opulence among the natives of India produces a greater accession of dependants, particularly in the female branch of the family, than in any other country; and according to their prejudices few of these adherents can be dismissed without incurring disgrace

In modern times, the British government, since the establishment of its predominance, being anxious to raise up an intermediate body of respectable gentry, has made vast sacrifices of revenue to the zemindars, with the view of elevating them to the rank of European landlords; but the experiment has totally failed, scarcely any of those whose incomes admit of their supporting a becoming splendour having shewn any desire to shake off their original habits, while the unceasing division and subdivision of estates, peculiar to the Hindoo law of inheritance, threatens to reduce the whole in the course of a few generations to the condition of labouring cultivators. Another step towards improvement would be to give the towns and market places a privileged municipal government, the want of which in all eastern governments has greatly retarded the advances of civilization, and long experience has demonstrated that the village institutions of India, well managed, are competent to maintain peace and order within their respective boundaries.

But a still more essential improvement than either of the above, would be the admission of natives to places of trust and honour, which is the only mode by which they can be effectually conciliated. It is in vain to expect that men will be satisfied with merely having their property secured, while all the paths of honourable ambition are shut against them. Under the Mahomedans, although they ruled as conquerors, the Hindoos could rise to offices of dignity and importance, from which they are now entirely excluded. The manners of the Mahomedans were much more like their own; they resided permanently among them, spent their revenue in the country, and became part of the people, whereas the British are only birds of passage. The natives have certainly a high opinion of their justice—it is a proverb; but under a great sovereign, such as Acber or Aurengzebe, who rewarded them adequately, natives of honour and integrity have sprung up, and under similar circumstances would do so again. No European is so thoroughly acquainted with the language, manners, and economy of the natives as they are themselves, and so far is inferior to any native judge; but the natives are at present so convinced of the superior integrity and impartiality of the European judges, that they are never satisfied without an appeal to their authority. At present the best natives will side with their own family, caste, or village. The main objection to the employment of the natives is their notorious habits of dishonesty and peculation: but it is only since the European functionaries were well paid that they themselves became trustworthy. All European governvernments have purchased integrity in high public offices by honours and emoluments; if we want it in India, we must take the same means, and if we pay the same price, we shall almost as readily find it among the natives of that country as among Europeans. The judicial system introduced into Hindostan by the British government is too artificial for the state of society there, and proceeds upon an assumption that the natives are altogether unworthy of trust. So they certainly are, and will continue, while so despicably remunerated for their honesty as they have hitherto been. The grand objection to European agency is, that it cannot be employed to the extent which is necessary for

governing well so vast a country, which could be effected only by an increase of colonisation; under the present system, a few hundred Europeans, scattered over a territory greatly surpassing in extent the largest kingdom in Europe, can never duly administer to the wants of so numerous a people.

These, and every other measure of a like nature, ought to be conceded slowly and gradually, for the experience of the world has shewn how vain and delusive are all sudden attempts to reform and improve the social condition by the mere force of legislative enactments. The institutions of the natives have arisen out of customs, religions, climates, and constitutions, essentially dissimilar to our own, but they have been approved and perfected by the experience of ages; any innovation, then, on their simplicity, where not absolutely necessary, is much to be deprecated, and the law most required just now is one to prevent European interference and meddling. We have, in fact, in most cases but little in our power beyond what internal tranquillity, and a steady government to check active oppression, produces. This cautious line of policy is more especially requisite in India, where the people are more under the trammels of prejudice than any other, their laws and usages being identified with their religion, which pervades every action of their lives. In laying the foundation, therefore, of order and improvement, the genius of the people must be consulted, and the greatest respect paid both to their inoffensive and hurtful prejudices. It is to the actual condition and exigencies of every society that its legislature must conform itself, and when a new evil arises it must be met by a corresponding remedy. The best and most effectual plan of improvement is that which does the least violence to the established order of things, requires no adventitious aid or complex machinery, and, as far as may be, executes itself.

In Hindostan land is the chief source of revenue, and the government assumes so large a proportion of the produce of the soil that it has a direct interest in encouraging the labours of the peasant. In 1815 the assessment per bega of the land revenue exhibited a remarkable diversity. In Shajehanpoor and Bareily it was seven and eight annas, while in Moradabad, immediately contiguous and similarly situated, it was one rupee twelve annas for a bega of the same description. The fluctuation of rate per bega between individual adjoining estates was yet greater. The only inference deducible from this variety of rate is, that if a proprietor can venture to engage for so high a rate per bega as the records frequently exhibit, it is only from the knowledge that he has other lands unknown to the assessor, from the proceeds of which, united with those recorded, he has the means of raising the amount of the jumma beyond the necessary returns of his capital and labour. The assessment therefore in these cases is fixed on his total receipts, without reference to the extent of land supposed to be assessed. Indeed, from a statement furnished by the board of commissioners, it appears that, in the ceded and conquered provinces alone, the extent of land held under rent-free grants (all questionable as to their validity) amounts to 4,495,177 begas, an extent exceeding the recorded area of the cultivated land in the largest of the British districts. The amount and value of the general improvement may be inferred from particular instances which come under the notice of the revenue and judicial authorities, when occasions arise for ascertaining the proprietor's income by regular inquiry, or when it is accidentally made known, or is deducible from other circumstances, such as the price given for lands by public and private sale. From such sources of information there are grounds for reckoning the net income of the zemindars, upon an average, at an amount equal to half the assessment paid to government, viz.

Sudder Jumma (say)......... 10
Proprietor's present income 5
— 15
Sudder Jumma (say)......... 10
Proprietor's former income 1
— 11
—
Difference 4

or one-third nearly, which indicates an improvement in the proportion of one-third of the former produce of the land. The resources of the state in other branches (such as salt, opium, stamps, customs, abkarry, &c.) have been in the mean time increased in a higher ratio, and the state benefitted by the augmentation during the whole period of its progress.

The price of wheat, as stated in the institutes of the Emperor Acber, is twelve dams per maund of thirty dams, equal to twenty-six dams, or ten annas nearly, per bazar maund. Flour, twenty-two dams per maund of thirty dams, equal to one rupee one anna and a half per bazar maund. Revenue of a bega of wheat in kind four maunds twelve and three-quarters; in money (the average of four provinces) the highest rents were 102 dams, medium of years sixty-seven dams. Four maunds twelve and three-quarters at 102 dams equal to twenty-four dams nearly; at sixty-seven dams equal to sixteen dams nearly, or thirteen annas to one rupee three annas per bazar maund. During the twenty years that elapsed between 1792 and 1812, great changes took place in Britain, but in India no such advance in the rate of wages or average price of corn took place as to indicate a material and permanent alteration in the value of money compared with the necessaries of life, nor in the wider range of two or three centuries does there appear to have been changes keeping exactly pace with those that have occurred within the same period in Europe. As may be inferred from the above statement, the price of provisions in the time of the Emperor Acber, and the relative proportion of a money rent to a rent in kind, differed much less than a similar comparison at an equal interval in Great Britain would shew.

The circumstances in which the British government is placed precluded all improvident generosity, and the peculiar habits of the people require that their natural tendency to inaction should be stimulated by the necessity of providing for the payment of a moderately high land assessment. An incitement of this nature is more particularly called for in a country where the mere necessaries of life are easily procured, and where, in most parts, during the prevailing anarchy of more than a century, to acquire property by individual exertion was only to tempt the hand of rapacity. In several provinces the assessment to the land revenue has been rendered permanent, and it is certainly desirable that in process of time the system be extended to the whole; but it must be done with caution, as by fixing its amount in perpetuity, we impose bounds to the demands of the state, ignorant of the future extent of the public exigencies. The abilities and indefatigable exertions by which the fiscal arrangements of India have been brought to their present improved condition, have never been duly appreciated in Europe. Much remains still to be done; but even in their present imperfect form, their regularity presents a singular contrast to the system of shifts, evasions, and extortions, which seems so congenial to the obliquity of a native financier. The same observation is applicable to the existing system of police, which, notwithstanding its numerous imperfections (far easier to describe than to remedy), has greatly ameliorated the condition of the natives, who are highly sensible of the protection their persons and property now experience, and acknowledge that the administration of civil and criminal justice has been improved, inasmuch as form and consistency have been substituted for discretionary authority. On the other hand it must be admitted that, under the new regime, the condition of some classes, and more especially the military, has materially retrograded, the productive income having, by the course of events, been almost wholly trans-

ferred to the purely agricultural and trading portions of the community.

The formation of the enormous empire now possessed in India by the British nation, has been urged on by events so uncontrollable, has been so fervently deprecated by the ruling authorities both at home and abroad, and so peremptorily interdicted by the strongest legislative enactments, that its acquisitions under such circumstances almost appears like a dispensation of providence. We are certainly intruders into Hindostan: but never was there, in a similar process of aggrandizement, such a want of intention or premeditation. Force alone could never have effected its accomplishment, although it was necessarily the subsidiary means through which the native states were enabled to surmount the obstacles that checked their inclination. Of the truth of this an adequate judgment can only be formed by those who have examined the voluminous documents that have fallen under the author's notice, and observed the incredible pains taken by the different British governments of India, since 1784, not only to avoid every war of aggression, but also to resist the importunity of the different native chiefs and communities to be admitted within the pale of its protection as subjects or tributaries. There may have been cases, although it would be difficult to indicate them, where the prospect of gaining a political ascendancy, or too hasty apprehension of meditated attack, have misled the government into hostilities which might have been avoided; but the general history of the British empire in India is, that it has been wantonly assailed; the unprovoked enemy has been conquered and the possessions wrested from him retained, not merely as a legitimate compensation, but also on the consideration of self-defence. The following concise abstract of the British territorial possessions, with the date of their acquisition will furnish a general notion of their progressive increase.

A.D.

1639. Madras with a territory five miles along shore by one inland.

1664. Bombay.

1691. Fort St. David.

1696. Calcutta.

1750. 1763. } The Jaghire in the Carnatic.

1757. The twenty-four pergunnahs.

1761. Chittagong, Burdwan, and Midnapoor.

1765. Bengal, Bahar, and four of the Northern Circars.

1776. The island of Salsette.

1781. The zemindary of Benares.

1787. The Guntoor Circar.

1792. Malabar, Canara, Coimbatoor, Dindigul, Salem, the Barramahal, &c.

1799 Seringapatam.

1800 The Balaghaut ceded districts of Bellary and Cuddapah.

1801. Territories ceded by the Nabob of Oude in compensation for subsidy, consisting of Rohilcund, (including Bareily, Moradabad, Shahjehanpoor, &c.) the lower Doab, and the districts of Furruckabad, Allahabad, Caunpoor, Goruckpoor, Azimghur, &c.

1801. The Carnatic province, comprehending the whole of the Nabob of Arcot's territories.

1803. The Dutch portion of the island of Ceylon.

1803. Delhi, Agra, the upper Doab, Hurriana, Saharunpoor, Merut, Alighur, Etawah, Bundlecund, Cuttack, Balasore, Juggernauth, &c.

1803. Cessions from the Peshwa and Guicowar in Gujerat.

1815. Conquests from Nepaul, consisting of the hill country between the Sutuleje and Jumna, and the districts of Gurwal and Kumaon.

1815. The kingdom of Candy in Ceylon.

1816. Anjar, Mandavie, and other places in Cutch.

1818. Poona and the whole of the Peshwa's dominions, Candeish, Saugur, and other places in Malwa; Ajmeer in Rajpootana; Sumbhulpoor, Sirgooja, Gurrah, Mundlah, and other cessions in Gundwana from the Nagpoor Raja.

1825. Conquests from the Burmese, consisting of Assam, Cachar, Munipoor, Arracan, Martaban, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and the Mergui Isles.

In 1814, the existing political system of Hindostan consisted of states subsidiary, federative, and independent, viz.

1st. Those with whom the British government had formed subsidiary alliances, such as the Nizam, the Peshwa, the Guicowar, the Rajas of Mysore, Travancore, Cochin, and the Nabob of Oude. The condition of these subsidiary alliances were, that the British government should protect the native state from external invasion and internal dissension, but the troops assigned for this purpose were not to be employed in the civil administation, or collection of the revenue. In return for the protection thus granted, the British government received a compensation in money or territory, and the subsidizing state not only undertook to maintain a certain contingent, in readiness to act with the subsidiary force, but also to abstain from all political intercourse with the other powers of India except in concert with the paramount authority, which undertook to arbitrate their disputed rights. In cases of exigence the entire resources of the protected state to be at the command, and under the direction of the British government.

2d. Certain small principalities, scarcely deserving the names of substantive powers, which enjoyed the British protection without any subsidiary connection. The principal members of this class were the Rajas of Bhurtpoor and Macherry, with some petty chiefs in the neighbourhood of Delhi and Agra, the Bundelcund chiefs, and the petty Seik chieftains on the frontiers towards the Sutuleje. The Rajpoot chiefs of Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Odeypoor, Bicanere, and Jesselmere were not included. The engagements for the protection of these principalities were nearly the same as those entered into with the greater states, except that the British government seldom exacted any consideration for its protection, and was not bound to maintain any special force for that purpose.

3d. The third class consisted of acknowledged princes, such as Sindia, Holcar, and the Nagpoor raja, with whom the British nation was at peace, and had a permanent ambassador (an arrangement considered by native politicians as the first step towards subjugation) stationed at their court.

4th. As a fourth class may be mentioned the independent princes and communities, who had never been acknowledged as substantive powers, and towards whom the British government was not bound by any connection whatever. The two classes last mentioned had always shewn a great reluctance to form any indissoluble alliances, on terms that seemed calculated to interfere with the unrestrained latitude of political action they had before enjoyed.

Since the date above-mentioned (1814) great political changes have taken place, the Maharatta power having been irretrievably broken by the war of 1817-18, and the Nepaulese by that of 1815. The Peshwa, as a potentate, has been annihilated, and his possessions, with the exception of Satara, incorporated with the British dominions; the Nagpoor raja reduced to a state of complete insignificance, and Holcar deprived of all sovereignty south of the Nerbudda. The Sindia family, from circumstances for which they can claim no merit, present no exhibition of desperate fortune, but they are now insulated and precluded from all extraneous assistance, not to mention the essential prostration their strength sustained by the destruction of the Pindaries. In fact, their existence now depends on the amicable relations they maintain with the British government. On the other hand, several friendly states, such as those of Boondee, Kotah, and Bopaul, have had their territories augmented, and the five great states of Rajpootana have been admitted into the federative alliance.

The following table (originally formed in 1820) is an attempt to present an abstract view of the relative area and population of the whole: but, from the imperfection of all East-Indian statistical documents, it must be regarded as a mere approximation to the truth. Since the date above-mentioned some territorial mutations of no great importance have taken place, but the estimate may nevertheless be considered as tolerably correct, and the number of inhabitants rather under than overrated.

Table of the relative Area and Population of the Modern States of Hindostan for A.D. 1820.

	British Sq. Miles.	Population.
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares	162,000	39,000,000
Additions in Hindostan since A.D. 1765	148,000	18,000,000
Gurwal, Kumaon, and the tract between the Sutuleje and Jumna	18,000	500,000
Total under the Bengal Presidency	328,000	57,500,000
Under the Madras Presidency	154,000	15,000,000
Under the Bombay Presidency	11,000	2,500,000
Territories in the Deccan, &c. acquired since 1815, consisting of the Peshwa's dominions, &c. and since mostly attached to the Bombay Presidency	60,000	8,000,000
Total under the British Government	553,000	83,000,000
British Allies and Tributaries.		
The Nizam	96,000	10,000,000
The Nagpoor Raja	70,000	3,000,000
The King of Oude	20,000	3,000,000
The Guicowar	18,000	2,000,000
Kotah, 6,500; Boondee, 2,500; Bopaul, 5,000	14,000	1,500,000
The Mysore Raja	27,000	3,000,000
The Satara Raja	14,000	1,500,000
Travancore, 6,000; Cochin, 2,000	8,000	1,000,000
Under the Rajas of Joudpoor, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Bicancere, Jesselmere, and other Rajpoot chiefs, Holcar, Ameer Khan, the Row of Cutch, Bhurtpoor, Macherry, and numerous other petty chiefs, Ameers of Sinde, Seiks, Gonds, Bheels, Coolies, and Catties, all comprehended within the line of British protection.	283,000	15,000,000
Total British Government and its Allies	1,103,000	123,000,000
Independent States.		
The Nepaul Raja	53,000	2,000,000
The Lahore Raja (Runjeet Singh)	50,000	3,000,000
The Ameers of Sinde	24,000	1,000,000
The Dominions of Sindia	40,000	4,000,000
The Cabul Sovereign east of the Indus	10,000	1,000,000
Grand Total of Hindostan	1,280,000	134,000,000

India beyond the Ganges.—Acquisitions in 1824 and 1825.

	Sq. Miles.	Population.
Countries south of Rangoon, consisting of half the province of Martaban, and the provinces of Tavoy, Ye, Tenasserim, and the Mergui Isles	21,000	51,000
The province of Aracan	11,000	100,000
Countries from which the Burmese have been expelled, consisting of Assam and the adjacent petty states, occupying a space of about	45,000	150,000
Total	77,000	301,000

Most of the chief towns of Hindostan are now comprehended within the British dominions, but few detailed reports of their population have ever been published. The following estimate is composed from a variety of documents; but must, like the preceding table, be considered as only an approximation to the reality. Those marked (*) belong to native powers.

	Population.
Benares	600,000
Calcutta	500,000
Madras and suburbs ...	462,051
Patna	312,000
* Lucknow	300,000
* Hyderabad	200,000
Dacca	180,000
Bombay	170,000
Surat	160,000
Delhi	150,000
Moorshedabad	150,000
Poona	110,000
* Nagpoor	115,000
* Baroda	100,000
Ahmedabad	100,000
* [illegible]	100,000
Furruckabad	70,000
Mirzapoor	60,000
Agra	60,000
Bareily	65,000
Aurungabad	60,000
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]

[illegible] Gwalior, &c. of considerable size and

population, but the particulars have never been ascertained.

In 1805, according to official returns transmitted, the total number of British-born subjects in Hindostan was 31,000. Of these 22,000 were in the army as officers and privates; the civil officers of government of all descriptions were about 2,000; the free merchants and mariners who resided in India under covenant, about 4,000; the officers and practitioners in the courts of justice, 300; the remaining 1,700 consisted of adventurers who had smuggled themselves out in various capacities. Since the date above-mentioned no detailed reports have been published; but there is reason to believe that even now (1828) the total number of British subjects in Hindostan does not exceed [illegible], the removal of the restrictions on the commercial intercourse having, contrary to expectation, added very few to the previous number.

Compared with the West Indies and other tropical regions, Hindostan may be considered a very healthy country, being little afflicted with many distempers that are destructive in other countries. Indeed, one of the most striking features of the medical history of India is, that it does not tolerate any infectious fever, typhus, yellow fever, and the plague being equally unknown east of the Indus. Cancer is nearly unknown within the tropics, and phthisis pulmonalis is very uncommon. Scrofula is rare, although instances occur from

particular causes, and the formation of the stone in the bladder is but very seldom experienced. Although the climate does not prevent attacks of the gout, yet they are certainly less common and severe than in cold countries, and quite unknown to the abstemious natives. Acute rheumatism is rare between the tropics, and the chronic kind is more easily cured than in Europe. Within the last fifteen years a new and very fatal disease has visited at different times Hindostan, and swept off great numbers of the natives; but its virulence has latterly very much abated, as it originally commenced, without any assignable cause, either from improvement of climate, diet, habits, or mode of treatment.

The army required for the protection of these extensive provinces, and for the retaining them under due subordination, although it presents a formidable grand total, probably does not amount to the fifth of the number maintained by the Mogul sovereigns and their functionaries, when that empire was in its zenith; yet, even under the ablest of the emperors, commotions in some quarter of their ill-subdued territories were unceasing. The British system in India has always been to keep the troops in a constant state of preparation for war, but never to enter into unprovoked hostilities, or engage in any contests, except those rendered necessary by the principle of self-defence. At present, with the exception of the Russian, the British military force is probably the largest standing army in the world. In 1796 it amounted to 55,000; in October 1826 it exceeded 300,000 men, viz.

Artillery	15,782
Native cavalry......	26,094
Infantry	234,412
Engineers	4,575
	280,863
King's troops	21,934
Grand total......	302,797 men.

Of these the irregulars of all descriptions amounted to 82,937 men.

This formidable army is distributed throughout Hindostan under the orders of the supreme government, promulgated through its political agents. Commencing from the great stations in the Doab of the Ganges, at Ajmeer is one corps; another at Neemutch; a third at Mow; all supplied from the Bengal army. These are succeeded by the Gujerat subsidiary forces, the field corps at Mulligaum, and the Poona division, furnished chiefly by the Bombay army. The circle is further continued by the field force in the southern Maharatta country; the Hyderabad and Nagpoor subsidiaries, composed of Madras troops; and the detachments from the Bengal establishment forming the Nerbudda and Saugur divisions, from whence the cordon terminates in Bundelcund. Such is the general outline, liable, of course, to temporary modifications, and occasional change in the selection of stations. At present, with the exception of a tract thirty-five miles broad on each side of Aseerghur, there is an unbroken line of communication through the British territory from Bombay to Calcutta. The statement of the revenue and aggregate debt of the three presidencies will be found under the article "Bengal."

For many years after the commencement of the British empire in India, the unavoidable necessity of extending its conquests was one of the great disadvantages attached to its dominion, for the wider they spread, the more assailable did they become. In more recent times a process exactly the reverse has been taking place, and the augmentation of territory, by approaching the natural barriers of Hindostan in place of extending the defensive line of frontier, has actually diminished it. Between Calcutta and the Indus there is now no hostile boundary, nothing but states bound together by a sense of common interest, or a comparatively small proportion of ill-disposed population, rendered incapable of rearing a hostile standard. But the multiplication of the points of defence is urged, the

decreased means of annoyance ought also to be taken into consideration, and its new situation has not brought the British government into contact with any state that has the power to give much trouble. All within the Indus is consolidated under one confederation, of which the British government is the head, while the Indus and its desert present a barrier against common means of aggression; against mighty invasions in the course of ages no state whatever can be wholly secure. To recede is often more hazardous than to advance; and no argument can be necessary to demonstrate how vain would be the expectation of augmenting our security by diminishing our power and ascendancy. One certain benefit has already resulted to the British dominions from the new order of things, which is, immunity from the ravages of a banditti generated and organized within the limits of Hindostan, against the recurrence of which it could never be secure while an asylum remained where the depredators could muster and refresh. Henceforward, therefore, if dangers arise to Hindostan, they will be internal, and greatly attributable to the negligence of the local governments.

In direct and authoritative control, the dominion of the British government extends much farther than that possessed by any prior dynasty, whether Patan or Mogul; yet the latter, so long as they abstained from persecution, had nothing to apprehend from the religion of the Hindoos, and history proves that the commotions which agitated the Mahomedan monarchies chiefly arose from their own internal dissentions and national disputes. Neither does it appear that any prior conquerors ever employed disciplined corps of their own countrymen in defence of their own sovereignty, although they had to contend with one very numerous tribe, the Hindoo; while the British, more advantageously situated, have two to put in motion against each other, and in process of time may raise up a third. Each foreign invader certainly favoured his own countrymen, but it was by bestowing on them places and high appointments, which excited envy without essentially strengthening his domination. Besides, therefore, total abstinence from persecution, the British government, in a powerful corps entirely European, and totally distinguished from the natives by colour, language, and manners, possesses a solidity and consistence much beyond any of the prior Mahomedan dynasties.

In the constitution of the peculiar circumstances of its situation, the character of its dominion, and the habits of the people with whom it is associated, either as to its domestic or external relations—this government is not a pure despotism, but one of law and responsibility, under numerous and salutary checks. The administrators of that government exercise a delegated power; they are accountable agents, amenable to the law of England, the Court of Directors, the Court of Proprietors, the Commissioners for Indian Affairs, the two houses of Parliament, the crown, and the British public. They record regularly, faithfully, and minutely, all their transactions, with a scrupulosity of exactness unprecedented in any other country, as well as their special reasons for every measure, legal, political, or financial. At present the legislative enactment most wanted is one to check European meddling and innovation, and a heavy responsibility will rest with those who subvert it, without clear and satisfactory grounds for presuming that a more perfect system of administration will be substituted.

The dominion exercised by the British nation in Hindostan, notwithstanding certain imperfections, has, on the whole, most undoubtedly been beneficial to the great mass of the native population, although the peculiar circumstances in which it is placed precludes the higher classes from any participation in the superior functions of the state. Indeed the natives of India, accustomed either to absolute command or implicit obe-

dience, have not been practically found to make a beneficial use of delegated authority. Strictly speaking, however, those whom the British have superseded were themselves strangers, and attention to dates will shew by how very short a tenure most of their possessions were held. The strength of the existing government has had the effect of securing its subjects, as well from foreign depredation as from internal commotion, advantages rarely experienced by the subjects of Asiatic states, which, combined with a domestic administration more just in its principles, and executed with far greater integrity than the native one which preceded it, sufficiently account for the improvements that have taken place.

On the other hand, were the territories so unexpectedly acquired to be restored to the natives, we should only transfer them from a state of the profoundest peace to sanguinary distractions, to profligate adventurers, and, most probably, to some rival European power. We cannot now, therefore, from a principle of justice and mercy, renounce the many millions we have so long and so effectually protected; and, with all our superior advantages, there is no reason to apprehend that the duration of the British empire shall not, at the least, equal that of the Moguls. In fact, if India be hereafter lost to Britain, it will be owing to circumstances wholly extraneous to the system of government hitherto pursued, or to some dereliction from the energy of that system. Time is certainly wanting for the present generation to forget their past habits, and to acquire information on practical points, in which they are most deficient; for, owing to the long-subsisted anarchy in Hindostan, all the relations of the community had become confused. On the British government will devolve the task of inculcating the principles of mild and equitable rule, distinct notions of social observances, and a just sense of moral obligations, the progressive result of which must inevitably be the adoption of a purer and more sublime system of religion.—(*Colebrooke, Sir William Jones, F. Buchanan, Sir Henry Strachey, Prinsep, the Marquis of Hastings, Erskine, C. Grant, Tucker, Rennell, 5th Report, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

HINDOSTAN, NORTHERN.

This alpine country commences on the west of the Sutuleje river, about the seventy-seventh degree of east longitude, from whence it stretches in the form of a waving parallelogram, slanting to the south until it reaches the Teesta river, in lon. 88° 30′ E., beyond which, among the mountains, the Buddhist Lama doctrines prevail. In length it may be estimated at 600 miles, by eighty-five the average breadth.

Within the above limits, Northern Hindostan may be considered as separated from Tibet, or Southern Tartary, by the Himalaya mountains; and on the south from the Mogul provinces of Upper Hindostan by the line where the lower ranges of hills press on the vast Gangetic plain; but a belt of flat country about twenty miles in width having always been left in possession of the hill chiefs, it will also be described along with the hilly portion of their dominions. The principal modern territorial and political subdivisions which the above geographic space at present exhibits, are noticed below, and under each head respectively further particulars will be found; but the attention of the reader is more especially directed to the general description of the Nepaulese dominions, as being in reality applicable to the whole of Northern Hindostan, of which they still occupy two-thirds, and before the war of 1815 occupied almost the whole.

1. Country between the Sutuleje and Jumna.
2. Gurwal or Serinagur.
3. The sources of the Ganges.
4. Kumaon.
5. Palkandi.
6. Bhutant.

7. The Nepaulese dominions.
8. The Sikkim Raja's territories.

The inhabitants of this hilly region, both before and after their conversion to the Brahminical tenets, maintained but little intercourse with their southern neighbours, and are probably the only Hindoo people who have never been disturbed, far less subdued, by any Mahomedan conqueror. Towards the conclusion of the eighteenth, and in the commencement of the nineteenth century, they fell wholly under the yoke of the Gorkhas, who observing the most jealous system of exclusion, until times quite recent, their interior condition remained a mere matter of conjecture; but war, the great promoter of discoveries in geography, having removed the veil, we are now nearly as well acquainted with their local circumstances, as with those of many old provinces long possessed. In 1827 Capt. Herbert estimated the superficial extent of the mountainous country now comprised within the limits of British India at about 23,000 square miles.

Hinglaisghur.—A fortress in the province of Malwa, ninety miles north from Oojein; lat. 24° 28′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E. The ridge of mountains that bound Malwa to the north extends in a direction nearly north and south to this place, forms an angle here, and diverges to the westward. This fortress is surrounded by a deep natural ravine, 250 feet in length and 200 in breadth, the sides perpendicular, on the inner of which the walls of the fort are built. There are three made causeways leading to the gates. Hinglaisghur has been in possession of the Holcar family since the middle of the 18th century, and by the natives is considered one of the strongest castles in their dominions; yet it was carried by assault in 1804 with little loss by a detachment under Colonel Monson, during the campaign against Jeswunt Row Holcar.

Hingunghaut.—A large trading town in the province of Gundwana, forty-five miles S.W. from Nagpoor; lat. 20° 37′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E.

Hirapoor.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-seven miles S. by W. from Allahabad; lat. 24°20′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E.

Hirial.—A populous village in the Balaghaut ceded district of Bellary, with a small fort well-built in the modern style, and protected by a ditch and glacis, distant about twelve miles south-west from the town of Bellary.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Hissar.—A town in the province of Delhi, the ancient capital of the country now known by the name of Hurrianna; lat. 28°57′ N., lon. 75°24′ E., 105 miles W.N.W. from the city of Delhi. The remains of this place cover a great extent, but are now so utterly ruinous as to preclude the possibility of ascertaining its original limits. In 1806 it contained only 300 men, besides a garrison of 200 soldiers, which was soon afterwards withdrawn. The palace of Sultan Feroze stands in what was the centre of the city, and has very extensive subterranean apartments. Close to the palace is an iron pillar, rather less than that at Joobut, near Delhi, called Feroze Shah's lath. There are also several large tanks, many wells, and vestiges of the Chittung nullah, or water-course, conducting the waters of the Jumna, are still visible.—(*Lieut. White, &c.*)

Hlokba (*or Lokbadya*).—An unknown region adjacent to Yunan in China, said to be situated between 97° and 98° E., and conjectured to be the Borkhampti country.

Hoewamohel.—A peninsula joined to the island of Ceram by a narrow isthmus, called the pass of Tanoeno, which was not only productive of clove trees, but yielded also large quantities of nutmegs. Of these last, what was called the great nutmeg forest was destroyed by the Dutch in 1667. Great quantities of sago are also produced here, which the Dutch monopolise.

Hog Isle.—A small island in the

Eastern seas, about twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Java; lat. 7° 5′ S., lon. 114° 55′ E.

Hog Isle.—A long narrow island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, between the second and third degrees of north latitude, and about forty miles in length, by three the average breadth.

Hog Isle.—A small islet thus named, in the province of Aurungabad, harbour of Bombay.

Holcar.—See Indore.

Hoobly (*Havili*).—A town in the province of Bejapoor, thirteen miles S.E. from Darwar; lat. 15° 20′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E. This has for many years been a place of great trade, and in 1820 was estimated to contain 15,000 inhabitants. The surrounding country is well wooded and watered, and an extensive traffic inland and with the sea-coast is carried on. The bankers are numerous and rich, and extend their commercial intercourse by means of agents as far north as Surat, eastward to Hyderabad, and southward to Seringapatam. There are no public or private buildings of any note; and although there are two forts, neither are capable of opposing any resistance to an army. Near to Hoobly, and to many other towns in this part of India, the ruins of mosques and Mahomedan burying-grounds prove that there were formerly a great many inhabitants of that religion, but they are now so reduced in number that in twenty towns and villages there is scarcely one to be found; and where there are a few, they are found subsisting on alms, in a miserable state of pride, poverty, and contempt. In 1673 this place was attacked by the Maharatta chief Sevajee, at which time the English factory here was plundered, and sustained a loss of 8,000 pagodas; in 1685 it was taken by Sultan Mauzum, Aurungzebe's son.

In 1804 Hoobly was in possession of the Furkiah Maharatta family, at which time, when General Wellesley was marching south after his campaign against Sindia, it was besieged by the Siraoubah, or deputy of the Peshwa. The garrison in the fort, on hearing of the general's arrival in their neighbourhood, requested his interference, and sent him a letter addressed to the deputy by the Peshwa, directing him to give old Hoobly and its dependencies to Bapoo Furkiah, his highness's brother-in-law, and the very person for whom the garrison already held it. On the other hand, the deputy produced the Peshwa's order, commanding him to besiege and take the place from Furkiah by force, and before this mud-walled village he had been detained six weeks. In this dilemma, General Wellesley recommended a suspension of hostilities to both parties, until the Peshwa's real intentions with respect to the destination of the place were ascertained; which sound advice was acquiesced in.—(*MSS., Moore, Orme, &c.*)

Hooghly (*Hugli*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated between the twenty-second and twenty-third degrees of north latitude. It is comparatively of recent creation, being composed of sections from Burdwan, Midnapoor, and other adjacent districts of greater antiquity. To the north it is bounded by Burdwan and Kishenagur; on the south it has the sea; on the east Jessore and the Sunderbunds; and on the west Midnapoor. The whole of this territory consists of low, flat land, very fertile, but much covered with jungle on the sea-coast, where it is remarkably unhealthy. Like the other southern jurisdictions, it has an excellent inland navigation, being intersected in every direction by rivers and their branches, which were formerly rendered almost impassable by the number of dacoits and river pirates. On the banks of the rivers near the sea, salt of an excellent quality is manufactured on government account, which, in the opinion of the natives, possesses peculiar sanctity, as being extracted from the

mud of the most sacred branch of the Ganges. The population and cultivation of this district are certainly improving, and some substantial religious buildings have been constructed on the banks of the river; but notwithstanding its proximity to Calcutta, which presents a constant market for its surplus produce, it is surprising how large a proportion of its surface still remains in a state of nature, the asylum of tigers, alligators, and a great variety of insects, vermin, and reptiles, creeping and crawling, winged and unwinged.

In the Hooghly district, within the jurisdiction of the magistrate, there are no seminaries for education of any repute. In 1801 there were thirty students instructed in the Persian and Arabic at Seelapoor, at an institution maintained by the produce of lands under a grant confirmed by Governor Hastings. The principles of Hindoo law were there taught by Pundits in about 150 private schools, each mustering from five to twenty scholars. The students here, unlike similar establishments in Europe, are maintained by such preceptors as can afford it, and the rest by contributions from the more wealthy inhabitants. Almost every village has its resident instructor, by whom reading, writing, and accounts are taught; and the inhabitants of this tract generally, in consequence of their contiguity to the presidency are better acquainted with the existing laws of the country than the individuals of most other districts. The number of suttees (burnings of widows) within the limits of the Hooghly district has always been remarkably great; in 1823 they amounted to eighty-one. According to the Brahminical tenets, a widow who burns herself, secures for herself and husband enjoyments in Paradise for as many years as there are hairs on the human body, that is to say, thirty-five millions. This text is attributed to Angiras, and forms part of the declaration, or sancapa, pronounced by a widow at the time of her ascending the pile. In 1801 the total number of inhabitants was estimated at one million, in the proportion of three Hindoos to one Mahomedan. In 1813 the crime of gang robbery, attended with torture, had experienced some diminution; still the number of robberies coming under that denomination, but not attended with aggravating circumstances, was greater than in any district within the Calcutta division of circuit.—(*J. Shakespeare, Brook, W. B. Bayley, &c.*)

HOOGHLY.—An ancient town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district, situated on the west side of the Hooghly, twenty-six miles above Calcutta; lat. 22° 54′ N., lon. 88° 28′ E. During the Mogul government this was a town of importance, being the bunder or port of the western arm of the Ganges, where the duties on merchandize were collected. The French, Dutch, Portuguese, and Danes had each a factory here, and subsequently were each permitted to possess a town, all comprehended within the extent of ten miles along the river. Hooghly is now comparatively of little note, but is still large, prosperous, and well inhabited. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "there are two emporiums, a mile distant from each other, one called Satgong, the other Hooghly with its dependencies, both of which are in the possession of Europeans." It is remarkable that the name of Hooghly is not mentioned in Faria de Souza's History of Bengal, where it is called Golin.

The Dutch in 1625, and the English in 1640, were permitted to build factories at this place: but their trade was greatly restricted, and subject to continual exactions. In 1632 the first serious quarrel that occurred between the Moguls and Europeans happened at Hooghly, which then belonged to the Portuguese. The Moguls invested it with a strong army, and the siege continued three months and a half, during which time the Portuguese made many offers of submis-

sion, and agreed to pay a tribute; but all were rejected by the besiegers, who having sprung a mine, carried the place by assault. The slaughter of the Portuguese was very great; many, in attempting to escape to their boats, were drowned; a few reached their ships in safety, but these also were immediately attacked. The captain of the largest ship, on board of which were embarked 2,000 men, women, and children, with all their wealth, rather than yield to the Mahomedans, blew up his ship, and many others imitated this example. Out of sixty-four large ships, fifty-seven grabs, and 200 sloops, which were anchored opposite to the town, only one grab and two sloops got away; and these owed their safety to the bridge of boats, constructed by the Moguls below Hooghly, at Seerpoor, having been broken by catching the flames from the conflagration of the fleet.

In 1686 the English were involved in hostilities by the imprudence of three of their soldiers, who, quarrelling in the bazar with some of the nabob's peons, were wounded. The garrison of the English factory were called out, and an action ensued, in which the nabob's troops were defeated, sixty of them being killed, and a considerable number of them wounded, and a battery of eleven guns spiked and destroyed. At the same time the town of Hooghly was cannonaded by the fleet under Captain Nicholson, and five hundred houses burned. This was the first action fought in Bengal by the English: but the result was a disgraceful peace, the Mogul government then subsisting in full vigour. An arrangement was afterwards made with the foujdar, or military superintendent of the district; but the agent and council, considering that Hooghly was an open town, retired on the 20th December of that year to Chuttanuttee, or Calcutta.—(*Bruce, Stewart, Rennell, &c.*)

Hooghly River.—A river in Bengal, which communicates its name to the preceding town and district. It is formed by the junction of the Cossimbazar and Jellinghy, the two westernmost branches of the Ganges, after which it flows past Calcutta, and is the only branch of the Ganges navigated by large vessels, although the entrance is dangerous, and the channel up to the town intricate and fluctuating. When joined by the Roopnarrain, a very expanded sheet of water is formed; but it has many shoals, and as it directly faces the approach from the sea, while the Hooghly turns to the right, it occasions the loss of many vessels, which are swept up the Roopnarrain by the force of the tide. The eddy caused by this bend of the Hooghly has formed a most dangerous sand, named the James and Mary, around which the channel is never the same for a week together, requiring frequent surveys.

The bore, or sudden influx of the tide, commences at Hooghly point, where the river first contracts its width, and is perceptible above Hooghly town. So quick is its motion, that it hardly employs four hours in travelling from the one to the other, although the distance is nearly seventy miles. It does not run on the Calcutta side, but along the opposite bank, from whence it crosses at Chitpoor, about four miles above Fort William, and proceeds with great violence past Barnagore, Duckinsore, &c. On its approach boats must immediately quit the shore, and seek for safety in deep water in the middle of the river, which is little affected. At Calcutta it sometimes has an instantaneous rise of five feet.

Only that portion of the Ganges that lies in the most direct line from Gangoutri in the Himalaya to Sagor Island is considered holy by the Brahminical Hindoos, and named the Ganga, or Bhagirathi; the Hooghly river, therefore, of European geographers, is revered by them as the true Ganges.—(*Rennell, Lord Valentia, Colonel Colebrooke, &c.*)

Hookery.—A town in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-five miles

S.S.W. from Merritch; lat. 16° 12′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. This is now a poor town, but still exhibits vestiges of a once flourishing condition, when it was subject to a Mahomedan sovereign. The last of the Mogul chiefs was Abdul Kharud, who was dethroned by the then Raja of Pernella, and died in A.D. 1643. An unsuccessful attempt was made to reinstate a surviving son, since which the Mahomedans have continued to decline, and live now in great poverty.—(*Moor, &c.*)

Hoolsoondroog.—A small hill-fort in the Mysore territories, thirty-five miles N.E. from Seringapatam. This fortress covers a little isolated conical granite rock of a very singular appearance, exceedingly precipitous, and of difficult ascent, the path near the top being carried through the body of the rock from whence the aid of a ladder is requisite to reach the enclosed smooth cap on the summit. Small as are the dimensions of this droog, it exhibits four or five distinct tiers of fortifications. The commandant's house and a small temple are comprehended within the walls at the foot of the rock. The pettah is of very small extent, and contains only a few straggling habitations.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Hooly Onore.—A town in the Mysore Raja's territories, 128 miles N.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 14° N., lon. 75° 48′ E. The fort here is of a square form, with towers at the angles, and two on each face, but it is not a strong place. The pettah is extensive, and tolerably well built, and enclosed by a bad wall and ditch. During the rains the western wall of the fort is washed by the Budra river. In 1792 Hooly Onore was taken by a detachment under Captain Little, and completely sacked and destroyed by the Maharattas, who got all the plunder, although they had none of the fighting. Prior to the Maharatta invasion the adjacent country was remarkably well peopled and cultivated. An officer of that rapacious nation, describing it, said it was so thickly settled, that every evening, when the Maharatta army encamped, they could count ten villages in flames, the work of the previous day.—(*Moor, &c.*)

Hoomnabad.—A town in the province of Beeder, twenty-three miles west from the city of Beeder; lat. 17° 48′ N., lon. 77° 14′ E.

Hoondel.—A small town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Mundessor, situated on the banks of the Toomber river.

Hoongoond.—A pergunnah in the province of Bejapoor, situated on the south bank of the Krishna river, which for about twelve miles from the Kapen Sungum (or junction) forms its northern boundary. The Moodgul territory, belonging to the Nizam, bounds it on the east for about eighteen miles, and on the south are several independent desyeships. The area of the whole pergunnah may be estimated at 675 square miles. Full three-fourths of this space, including all its central, northern, and eastern parts, are level, or nearly so. There is little wood, except the overgrown bush-jungle of the waste arable land, none of the hills yielding any useful timber; indeed, many of them are quite bare. A black alluvial soil, apparently of considerable fertility, occupies the whole of the northern and eastern, and much of the central portions, every where of an adequate depth.

Hoongoond is comprehended in the ancient Carnatic, and Canarese is the universal language. It contains 168 inhabited places, reported to possess 6,719 houses, and 31,079 persons, or forty-nine to the square mile. The fullest population is found in the agricultural towns of Hoongoond, Kandgul, and Keloor, which altogether contain about 5,467 persons. The largest manufacturing town, named Ikul, contains only 2,679, and Ameerghur 1,800 persons. The two most intelligent tribes are the Lingwunt, or lay Jungum, and the Dhunger, and amount to about

half of the whole: the remainder consists of a great variety of Hindoo tribes, and a few Mahomedans. The system of katkaee, or indiscriminate pillage, broke out here prior to 1790, and subsisted up to the very day of the British conquest in 1818—the famine of that year also loosened the bonds of society, set every man against his neighbour, and consummated its ruin. The instantaneous transition from this state of anarchy to one of entire subordination and tranquillity on the establishment of the British government, appeared almost miraculous; and so early as 1821 there was nothing to indicate that they had not been a civilized, orderly, and moral people for a century preceding.—(*Marshall, S. Thackeray, &c.*)

HOOSHEAARPOOR.—A small town in the province of Lahore, forty-five miles north from Luddeeanna; lat. 31° 35′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E.

HOSEEPOOR.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Sarun, eighty-two miles N.W. from Patna; lat. 26° 25′ N., lon. 84° 17′ E.

HOSSO DURGA.—A small town in the Malabar province, forty-one miles S. by E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 10′ N., lon. 75° 10′ E. This place is inhabited by a few Puttah Brahmins who serve a temple, and whose ancestors were put there by the Ikery Raja, who built the fort.

HOSSOBETTA.—A small town on the sea-coast of the Canara province, fourteen miles S. by E. from Mangalore; lat. 12° 42′ N., lon. 75° E. Near to this is a large straggling town named Manjeswara, containing many good houses, chiefly inhabited by Moplays, Buntars, and Biluars. The principal inhabitants of Hossobetta and of many other towns are Concanies, or people descended from natives of the Concan. It is reported they fled hither to escape a persecution at Govay (Goa), their native country, an order to convert them having arrived from Portugal. The rich immediately removed, and the poor who were left behind were converted to what was then called Christianity. —(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

HOWERAGHAUT (*the pergunnah of*). —See BIJNEE.

HUDEAH.—A town in the Delhi province, fifty miles S.W. from Luddeeanna, respecting the condition of which quarter, scarcely any thing is known. Lat. 30° 11′ N., lon. 75° 30′ E.

HUDSOO RIVER.—A wide and remarkable river of the Deccan, which is supposed to have its source in the elevated table-land of Mynpat, in the province of Gundwana, not far from the spot from whence issue the Mahanuddy and Sone rivers.

HUE (*or Huefo*).—A town in the empire of Cochin China, of which, in 1820, it was the capital, having been the royal residence for nearly twenty years; lat. 16° 19′ N., lon. 107° 12′ E. It stands about ten miles up a barred river, but broad river of the same name, accessible to large vessels at high water only, and surrounded by a double ditch, said to be five miles in circumference. It is fortified after the European manner, by walls built of brick, united by a cement in which white sugar is said to be a principal ingredient. The fortress is of a square form, and armed with many cannon of different calibres from the king's arsenal, which is usually said to contain 2,000 pieces. A strong fleet of gallies is usually stationed here, and others are annually constructed in the building-yards, some after the European plan, and others a mixture of all models. The population in 1822 was estimated at about 30,000.—(*Lieut. White, Crawfurd's Mission, &c.*)

HUGHLY (*district, town, and river*).—See HOOGHLY.

HULLYHALL (*or Hullial*). — A town in the province of Canara, twenty miles S.W. from Darwar, lat. 15° 21′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E. In 1801, the Madras government, at the recommendation of Colonel Arthur

Wellesley, made this the head-quarters for the troops in the Soonda district, and authorized such repairs to be made on the works at Hullyhall as appeared necessary to place it in a state of security.—(*The Duke of Wellington, &c.*)

Hulwud.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, the modern capital of the Jhala Rajpoots, thirty-three miles E. by S. from Mallia, lat. 22° 51′ N., lon. 71° 16′ E.

Hump Isle.—An island in the Eastern seas, about fifty miles in circumference, situated at the entrance of the great bay on the north coast of Papua or New Guinea; lat. 2° 30′ N., lon. 135° 30′ E.

Humpapura.—An open village in the Mysore Raja's territories, situated on the banks of the Kapini river, which in the rainy season is sixty yards wide, and at all seasons contains running water; lat. 12° 10′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E., twenty-three miles south from Seringapatam.

Hurdah (*Haradi*).—A town in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Bhugwanea, which in 1820 belonged to Dowlet Row Sindia. It stands about thirteen miles S.S.W. from Hindia, and from hence there are roads leading to Bhopaul, Hussungabad, Nagpoor, Charwah, and Hindia.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Hurdanhully.—A fortified town in the Mysore Raja's territories, distant about forty-one miles S. by E. from the city of Mysore. Though not of great extent this is a populous and cheerful place, and contains a fine temple dedicated to Siva.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Hurdwar (*Haridwar, the gate of Hari, or Vishnu*).—A town and celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, 110 miles N.E. from the city of Delhi, lat. 29° 56′ N., lon. 78° 10′ E., and 1,024 feet above the level of the sea. Hurdwar, or Haridwar, is also named Ganga dwara, (dwara meaning a door, gate, or passage). In the Scanda and other Puranas it is written Haridwar, which marks a different etymology, from Hari (Vishnu), not from Hara (Siva, or Mahadeva).

This place is situated at the base of a steep mountain, on the northern verge of a small cultivated slip of land reclaimed from the great forest, which almost touches the western extremity of the town. Neat pagodas and spacious edifices of stone (reared by pious individuals for the accommodation of pilgrims), with their flights of steps leading to the river, some adorned with turrets of pavilions, others covered over with fantastic Hindoo paintings, all in some way new decked and decorated, evince the existence of a flourishing hierarchy; while the sacred Ganges (here a beautiful and limpid stream), rolling down in rapids through a vale, bounded on three sides by lofty mountains, combine to produce a noble landscape. The holy bathing spot is at the base of the Hirkee Paree, where the mountain projects towards the river, and there is room for only four persons to pass abreast, which confined space, for the passage of an immense crowd, occasioned the dreadful tragedy of 1819. On that occasion, in consequence of a desperate rush made by the infatuated pilgrims to gain precedency in bathing, 430 persons were squeezed to death, among whom were several British sepoys, placed as guards to prevent this very catastrophe, but who were borne away by the multitude, and lost their lives while endeavouring to execute their duty. The river in front of Hurdwar abounds with tame fish, which swim in shoals to the ghauts to be fed. Opposite to the town is the sacred well of Chandni Devi, where there is an officiating priestess; but the trisool or trident of Mahadeva, which formerly crowned the summit, was overthrown by a storm some years ago and has not been replaced. The Brahminical town of Kunkul, on the river about two miles below, may be considered an appendage, if not a rival to Hurdwar.

Besides religious motives, great numbers resort hither for commercial purposes, Delhi, Lucknow, and other important towns being supplied from hence with the productions of the northern and western countries. The merchants usually travel in large caravans, and the cattle brought for sale are used also for the conveyance of the merchandise. At the two annual fairs it is supposed that from 200,000 to 300,000 persons are collected; once in twelve years, when particular ceremonies are performed, the number has been computed at a million, and in April 1819, but probably exaggerated, at two millions. The most conspicuous persons are the fakeers, or religious mendicants, of whom there are several sects; but the principal are the Gossains or Sanyassies, the Bairaggies, the Jogies, and the Udassies, which four classes are again subdivided, and branched out to a great variety. The most numerous are the Gossains, who during the Maharatta sway were sufficiently powerful to usurp a temporary superiority, and not only collected duties on their own account, but regulated the police of the fair.

The next powerful class are the Bairaggies; but, from the year 1760 until the Company obtained possession of the Doab this tribe was debarred from the pilgrimage; and, although the sway of the Gossains be over, they still occupy the best stations at the fair. Many of these profess a total disregard for worldly concerns, and appear in a complete state of nature; but among them are many men of considerable property, who assume only the semblance of the devotee, being in other respects well provided with the comforts and conveniences of life. Some of them follow the military profession, but the greater part are engaged in agricultural and commercial pursuits.

The Gossains, the (Sanyassies, of the west of India,) are the worshippers of Siva or Mahadeva, and have taken vows of celibacy, and are distinguished by a wrapper of cloth dyed with red ochre. Those of Bengal are worshippers of Vishnu, and married. The term is a corruption of Goswami, lord of the bull, and ought, consequently, to have reference to Siva. The Bairaggies are religious mendicants, who, as their name implies, are supposed to be exempted from human passions. They are disciples of Vishnu, and are distinguished by two stripes of yellow ochre, or sandal, on the forehead, and a string of tulasi beads round the neck. The Udassies are followers of Nanok Shah, the founder of the Seik sect, and are known by a conical cap with a fringe.

The Jogies are votaries of Siva, and have a longitudinal slit in the cartilage of the ear. Another custom prevails among the Gossains and Jogies which is uncommon among other Hindoos, that of burying their dead. All these sects engage in husbandry and commerce, but the profession of arms is peculiar to the Gossains or Sanyassies. Some of them never shave, but allow the hair of their head to grow to an extraordinary length, binding it round their forehead in small tresses like a turban.

At the foot of the pass into the mountains above Hurdwar, there was formerly a post belonging to the Gorkhas, to which slaves were brought down from the hills and exposed for sale. Many hundred poor wretches of both sexes, from three to thirty years of age, were formerly imported from all parts of the interior of the hills, and sold at prices from ten to 150 rupees. The average price of camels from Lahore was seventy-five rupees, and common horses from 250 to 300 rupees, which fair still continues. The merchants never mention *viva voce* the price of their cattle, but having thrown a cloth over their hands, they conduct their bargain by touching the joints of their different fingers, to prevent the bystanders from gaining any information.

No particular ceremony is used in bathing, which consists merely of simple immersion. The depth at the

proper stream is only four feet, and both sexes plunge in indiscriminately. Those who are rich and rigidly pious are introduced by a couple of Brahmins, who, having dipped the penitent in the holy stream, reconduct him to the shore. The period of ablution is that of the sun's entering Aries, which, according to Hindoo calculation, happens twenty days later than the vernal equinox. Every twelfth year, when Jupiter is in Aquarius, at the time of the sun's entering Aries, the concourse of pilgrims is greatly augmented. Owing to the precautions taken by the British government, the fairs at Hurdwar have, for many years past, ended without bloodshed, to the astonishment of the vast multitude assembled, who were formerly accustomed to associate the idea of fighting and murder with that of the pilgrimage to Hurdwar.

Travelling distance from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 1,080 miles; by Birboom 957 miles; from Delhi 117 miles; from Lucknow 311 miles.—(*Raper, Fullarton, Hardwicke, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Hurn Pahl (*or the stag's leap*).—A rapid thus named in the Nerbudda, thirteen miles below Chiculdah. The river here is 200 yards broad, but obstructed by large masses of rock, rising about eleven feet above the ordinary level of the water, leaving three channels between them, through which the current rushes with much violence. According to fabulous tradition, a deer, being hard pressed, sprang across from rock to rock at three bounds, and hence the name originated.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Hurreepoor (*Haripur*).—A town in the province of Lahore, belonging to a petty chief named the Raja of Guler, and in 1810 reckoned to contain from 1,000 to 1,500 houses; lat. 31° 57′ N., lon. 75° 55′ E., seventy-three miles N.E. from Amritsir. The Raja of Guler was then tributary to Runjeet Singh of Lahore.

Hurrischunderghur (*Hari Chandra ghar*).—A hill fortress in the province of Aurungabad, seventy miles E.N. by E. from Bombay; lat. 19° 18′ N., lon. 73° 50′ E.

Hurrund Dajel.—A district subject to the Khan of Baloochistan, situated between the twenty-ninth and thirtieth degrees of north latitude and bounded on the east by the Indus. This tract does not exceed fifty miles in length or breadth, but the soil is extremely fertile, and yields a large revenue; the population is entirely composed of Juts, with the exception of a few Afghans and other accidental settlers. The climate is cooler in summer than that of Cutch Gundava, and in winter is equally mild. A considerable traffic is carried on from hence by means of the Indus, boats ascending to Mooltan and Attock, or descending to Hyderabad and Tatta. The chief town here is named Hurrund, and the second Dagel.—(*Pottinger, &c.*)

Hurrial (*Hari alaya, the abode of Vishnu or Hari*).—A commercial mart in the province of Bengal, where the East-India Company has long had an established factory for the purchasing of silk and cotton goods; lat. 24° 19′ N., lon. 89° 17′ E. This commercial residency has for some years past been incorporated with that of Comercolly.

Hurrianna.—A large division of the Delhi province, situated principally between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Bhatty country, and the domains of numerous Seik chieftains; on the south by the Shekawutty country, the pergunnah of Narnoul, and the assigned territories; to the east it has the Seik chiefs and the assigned territories; and on the west the Bhatty and Bicanere countries and the sandy desert of Ajmeer. Although situated on the verge of the desert, it is celebrated for its verdure (probably by comparison), from which the name is derived, Hurya, in Hindostany signifying green. While Acbar reigned this district was comprehended in the circar of Hissar Fireeeh, and from the num-

ber of large and populous towns it then contained, must have been in a very superior state of police and cultivation to what it exhibited when it first came under the British domination. It is also occasionally named, but it does not appear why, the Lesser Baloochistan.

The country known by the distinctive name of Hurrianna includes the pergunnahs of Hansi, Hissar, Mohim, Tosham, Barwallah, Bhehul, Beeree, Rotuk, Agroha, and Jemaulpoor, and, excepting the northern and eastern part of the last-mentioned division, is an extensive plain, free from jungle, and remarkable for the depth to be penetrated before water can be reached, and the further west the more the difficulty increases. The depth of the water from the surface at Rotuk is seventy feet; Mudeena 100; Mohim 90; Mundahil 109; Hansi 120; and at Hissar 136 feet. A large proportion of the villages have small shallow lakes, containing water sufficient for the inhabitants and cattle throughout the year; but the cultivation is entirely dependent on the monsoon, there being at present no artificial means of irrigation, and the wells too deep to supply the requisite quantity. Sultan Feroze brought the waters of the Jumna to Hissar by a canal, which while it subsisted fertilized the country, but it has been long choked up and almost effaced.

The chief towns of Hurrianna are Hansi, and Hissar, venerable for their antiquity; Rotuk and Bhowany; but it contains also a number of large villages, where herds of cattle are pastured, and in the vicinity of which lions are said to be sometimes discovered. Rotuk is one of the best cultivated and least turbulent of the pergunnahs, and is said to have yielded M. Perron eight lacks of rupees, although he never established any regular authority over the country. The assessment of Hurrianna prior to the British conquest is said to have been 7,14,508 rupees. The eastern quarter is inhabited mostly by Jauts, and the western by Rungurs, which is an appellation given to such of the Jaut tribes as have embraced the Arabian prophet's religion. Both tribes are ferocious and uncivilized, and before the pressure of British coercion were in a state of unceasing hostility, town with town, village with village.

During the flourishing period of Mogul history this district was of great value and importance, and usually considered as a personal appendage of the heir apparent to the throne; but after the dissolution of that empire it had never in fact been subjected to any regular government, and although nominally forming part of Sindia's former dominions, and transferred to the British by the treaty of Surjee Anjengaum, the authority of either had never been substantially established. The solicitude of the supreme government to dispose of a large portion of its territorial acquisitions west of the Jumna, in a manner consistent with the security of that frontier, afforded an opportunity of combining with the accomplishment of that object a remuneration for the higher class of chieftains, who had distinguished themselves in the British cause. The Hurrianna was in consequence accepted and abandoned in whole or in part as jaghire, by the Nabob Bhumboo Khan, by Ahmed Khan Buksh, by the Seik chieftains, Bhaugh Singh, and Bhye Laul Singh, and by Abul Summud Khan, an eminent warrior. The difficulties which so many chiefs found insurmountable, arose from the martial and refractory spirit of its inhabitants, and from the predatory habits of its barbarous neighbours the Bhatties.

Abul Summud Khan having spontaneously relinquished his claims to this country, was reimbursed for the expense he had fruitlessly incurred in attempting its subjugation; and in 1809 the Bengal government resumed the district, and proceeded to introduce the British authority, with the caution and moderation adapted to the exigence and semi-barbarous state of its population.

The province of Hurrianna had during a series of years been a prey to successive invaders, and a scene of incessant rapine and confusion, and without the slightest vestige of a regular government. Its inhabitants from necessity had become warlike and ferocious, unused to control, and totally unacquainted with the advantages of a just and regular administration. The policy of every power which had yet attempted its conquest had been invariably directed to beat down by main force, rather than attempt to conciliate their attachment, treating them always rather as natural enemies than as subjects; their dispositions consequently became hostile to every power that attempted to enforce subordination, expecting unmixed evil from all. Experience, however, has repeatedly shewn that this furious and turbulent spirit gradually yields to a mild and conciliatory conduct, which introduces merely such restraints as are indispensable to the general good, and is exerted in confirming and supporting individual rights. Although the benefits of this novel species of government are not at first obvious to them, yet it imperceptibly operates a reform, when combined with a local power of coercion, capable of reducing to obedience those whom it may be found impracticable to conciliate or convince.

Upon these principles it was determined to regulate the measures adopted for the settlement of the country, and to render the existing aumils, zemindars, and farmers, instruments for the establishment of tranquillity; to consider them as parties with the government and not opposed to it, and as interested in suppressing rather than exciting disorders. The Hurrianna has in consequence ever since enjoyed a tranquillity unknown for centuries, although in 1812 it suffered greatly by a severe drought, and subsequent scarcity, approaching nearly to a famine, which caused a considerable diminution of the revenue. Under these unfavourable circumstances, a provisional settlement was effected for the district, with the exception of Futtehabad, for three years viz.

	Rupees.
1813	2,23,766
1814	3,08,226
1815	3,39,360

(*Public MS. Documents, Metcalfe, Lieut. White, Gardner, &c.*)

HURRIPAUL (*Haripala*).—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Hooghly, situated near the new Benares road, twenty-three miles west from Calcutta, and the seat of a commercial residency. With the contiguous villages of Doorhutta and Parbutpoor it contains a considerable population, but it is more properly a congerie of straggling hamlets than a town.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

HURRIPOOR.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, principality of Sirmore, ten miles N.E. from Nahan; lat. 30° 46 N., lon. 77° 30′ E.

HURRAUNLEE TEMPLE.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, fifteen miles east of Serinagur; lat. 30° 15′ N., lon. 79° 3′ E., 9,534 feet above the level of the sea.

HURRYHUR (*Hari Hara, Vishnu, and Siva*).—A town in the Mysore Raja's territories, forty-two miles N.W. from Chitteldroogh, situated on the east side of the Toombudra; lat. 14° 31′ N., lon. 75° 59′ E. From barometrical observations, the height of Hurryhur has been estimated at 1,831 feet above the level of Madras.

HURSOOL.—A village in the province of Aurungabad, about two miles N.N.E. from the city of that name. Here are the remains of several extensive serais and Mahomedan tombs, and the tract from hence to Aurungabad is strewed with similar ruins.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

HURSORA.—A town with a good ghurry, belonging to Holcar, in the province of Malwa, three miles east of Mow, which in 1820 contained about 500 houses; lat. 22° 33′ N., lon. 75° 55′ E.

HURTOONA.—A town in the pro-

vince of Gujerat, principality of Banswara, about thirty miles west of the town of Banswara; lat. 23° 30′ N., lon. 74° 3′ E. In 1820 it was the capital of a small feudatory named Dowlet Singh.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

HUSSEIN ABDAUL.—A beautiful valley in the north-west corner of the Lahore province, situated about twenty-four miles east from the Indus; lat. 33° 55′ N., lon. 72° 25′ E. This valley was always a favourite resting-place of the Mogul emperors, during their annual migrations to Cashmere; but the gardens and buildings have long gone to ruin. The tomb of a devout Mahomedan named Hussein Abdaul, which communicates the name, is partly composed of marble, and stands in a square enclosure. This person was a famous saint of Candahar, there known as Baba Wullee. The surname Abdaul in the Afghan language signifies mad. In A.D. 1809 the hills to the south of the valley of Hussein Abdaul formed the boundary of the Cabul dominions in this quarter of Hindostan.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

HUSSEINABAD.—A village in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, situated on the Issamutty river, twenty miles W.S.W. from the city of Dacca. Near to this place on the west bank of the river there is a small Portuguese church, and the vicinity is inhabited by a population of native Catholics.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

HUSSEINGUNGE.—A town in the King of Oude's reserved territories, situated about twenty-one miles west from Lucknow.

HUSSINGABAD (*properly Hoshangabad*).—A considerable town in the province of Candeish, situated on the south side of the Nerbudda, 135 miles N.W. from Nagpoor; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 77° 51′ E. The bed of the Nerbudda here is much broken, and about 900 yards broad, but there are thirteen fords across within fourteen miles of the town. The best is at Goondia, three miles and a half east to which there is a good carriage road. All the fords near Hussingabad become passable in the beginning of January; in October the depth of water (which is remarkably sweet, and abounds with fish) in the shallowest parts near the town is between five and six feet. The valley here through which it runs is but scantily cultivated, and that only contiguous to the villages, which lie scattered along the banks at considerable distances from each other. During part of the month of February the jungle here appears of the brightest scarlet from the flowers of the *butea frondosa*, and at the same season the *bassia latifolia* perfumes the air with its powerful fragrance. The flowers of the tree last-mentioned are collected by the natives, and when dry have the appearance of berries, and are as sweet as raisins. A vinous spirit with a smoky flavour is extracted from them by distillation. In 1827 a vein of anthracite, or blind coal, was discovered here while digging a well through grauwacke and slate.

Hussingabad has long been noted as an important position, and was visited by General Goddard, when marching from Bengal to Gujerat by the route of Bilsah and Bopaul, to the Nabob of which place it then belonged, but was subsequently wrested from him by the Raja of Nagpoor. It is now the capital of a large pergunnah belonging to the British government, and being the key of this quarter of the Deccan, has been made a permanent station for a military detachment. In 1820, although the houses covered an extensive surface, they were meanly built, and thinly populated.—(*Public Journals, Malcolm, Heyne, &c.*)

HUSSEINPUR (*Hussinpur*).—A town in the province of Delhi, sixty-five miles E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 44′ N., lon. 78° 9′ E.

HUSTINAPOOR (*or Hastina Nagara*).—The supposed site of a famous and ancient city, much celebrated in Hindoo mythological poems, fifty-nine miles N.E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 9′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E.

Hastinapura is about twenty miles S.W. from Daranagur, on a branch of the Ganges, formerly the main channel of that river. There remains only a small place of worship. The extensive site of this ancient city is entirely covered with large ant hills, which has induced the inhabitants of the adjacent country to suppose that it had been overturned or destroyed by the Termites.—(*Wilford, &c.*)

HUSWAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles N.W. from Currah; lat. 25°53′ N., lon. 80°52′ E.

HUTTA.—A town and pergunnah belonging to the British government in the province of Allahabad, watered by the Sonaut river, and situated thirty-four miles N. by W. of Nowtah.

HUTTANY.—A large town in the province of Bejapoor, thirty-five miles west from the ancient capital; lat. 16° 43′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E. This place carries on an extensive commerce with Bombay, Surat, and other emporiums. The manufactures are silk and cotton sanees, piece goods, &c., but the staple article is grain. Here is an excellent durrumsalla, or place of accommodation for travellers, from the appearance of which, the importance of a town throughout the province of Bejapoor may usually be estimated. It is capable of lodging 500 persons, the horses and camels being picqueted round the building, which is handsomely built of free-stone.

Huttany was a considerable place in 1679, when it was taken from Sevajee (who had previously reduced it) by the confederates of Bejapoor, who proposed to sell the inhabitants for slaves; but this measure was warmly opposed by Sambhajee, Sevajee's revolted son, who not being able to carry his point, became reconciled to his father. The English factory at Carwar, in North Canara, about the middle of the seventeenth century, had considerable dealings at Huttany; but, on account of its turbulence and frequent revolutions, the intercourse was discontinued.—(*Moor, &c.*)

HYDASPES RIVER.—See JHYLUM RIVER.

HYATNAGUR.—A town in the King of Oude's territories, fifty miles east from Lucknow; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 81° 33′ E.

HYDERABAD.

A large province of the Deccan which communicates its name to the Nizam's dominions collectively, and situated between the sixteenth and nineteenth degrees of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 280 miles, by 110 the average breadth. This territory composed a considerable portion of ancient Telingana, which in the institutes of Acber is called a district of Berar, but was probably only in part possessed by that emperor. Besides the original provinces of Hyderabad, Beeder, and Nandere, the Nizam, since his political connection with the British government, has received the accession of various extensive and fertile districts in Aurungabad, Bejapoor, and Berar, which have carried his frontier north to the Tuptee and Wurda rivers, and south to the Toombudra and Krishna. The aggregate comprehends an area of about 95,000 square miles; and the following are the principal territorial subdivisions of the Hyderabad province, as distinguished from other portions of the Nizam's dominions; but our information respecting their internal condition and statistics continues very defective, and ought to be remedied.

1. Paungul.	9. Golconda.
2. Eidgheer.	10. Coilconda.
3. Ghunpoor.	11. Malkair.
4. Dawurconda.	12. Maiduck.
5. Nalgonda.	13. Kowlas.
6. Cummumait.	14. Elgundel.
7. Warangol.	15. Mullungur.
8. Bongheer.	16. Ramgheer.

The surface of Hyderabad is an elevated table-land, hilly but not mountainous, with a climate of a more moderate temperature than its latitude would indicate. At the city of Hyderabad, and in the tracts north of it, the thermometer during three

months of the year is often so low as 45°, 40°, and even 35° of Fahrenheit. To protect themselves against this degree of cold, the lower classes use a coarse woollen blanket, made in the country; the higher classes, shawls and printed silks. A few of the courtiers and chief noblemen clothe themselves in English broadcloth, as a fashion or a luxury, but the mode is not general. The Nizam's cavalry clothe themselves after their own taste, but the infantry are regularly dressed in British red cloth, and are equipped with accoutrements made either at Madras or Masulipatam.

Although there are many rivers and streams in this province none of them are navigable, being in general mere channels to drain off the water that falls during the rainy season; after which, having little or no regular supplies from springs, they become dry. The territory is notwithstanding naturally productive; but from the nature of the government it has never attained any great prosperity, the cultivators being wretchedly poor, and much oppressed by their immediate superiors, the jaghiredars, who are subject to little restraint from their nominal sovereign. To the south of Hyderabad city an immense tract of land is depopulated, desolate, and much covered with jungle, among which the traces of ruined towns, villages, and enclosures, indicate the prior existence of a numerous and civilized population. When properly cultivated the fields yield abundant crops of wheat of an excellent quality, which is transported by inland carriers to the sea-coast, from whence salt is brought in return. The districts acquired by the Nizam in 1803 are particularly productive, and under prudent management capable of yielding a revenue of above one million per annum. Owing to defects in the fiscal arrangements the government are almost totally deprived of the benefits of foreign commerce, the average import of European goods into the Nizam's extensive dominions prior to 1800 not exceeding £25,000 per annum.

In 1801 the aggregate amount of the existing customs levied on importations was about fifteen per cent., and as a principal part of the revenue of the state was then derived from this source, the utmost reluctance on the part of the Nizam was to be expected to any alteration tending to its reduction. The British government, on the other hand, wished to prevail on his highness to abolish the collection of all imposts whatever on the ingress and egress of commodities, as the most likely mode of ensuring the beneficial advantages which would result to both parties from an unrestricted commerce. As this, however, could not be attained, a moderate rate of two and a-half per cent. was proposed as a subsidiary condition, under the apprehension of the difficulty that would be experienced in attempting to annihilate the whole. But the existence of even this moderate rate is liable to many abuses and exactions, detrimental to the private adventurer, and injurious to the public revenue; for granting that it were conceded, a great difficulty would be experienced in fixing the value of the various articles of merchandize with such precision as to preclude litigation between the traders and the custom-house officers. A general permanent duty on the aggregate invoice value, which would be authenticated by the signatures of the public officers of each government, appears more eligible than by having the value fixed by juries of merchants: an arrangement no less repugnant to the principles and usages of Asiatic states (although customary as to landed property) than productive of litigation, fraud, and delay.

At present the principal trade carried on between the Nizam's dominions and those under the British government, is the supply of cotton sent from Berar to the Northern Circars, and also to the markets at Vellore, Arnee, and that vicinity. The traders return loaded with salt and salted fish; some cloths manufactured in the northern Circars, and some Arnee

muslins. In 1808 it was discovered that a considerable quantity of opium was exported from the Nizam's territories to the Eastern Isles, and there sold at a much cheaper rate than the Company's Bengal drug; but although this trade interfered materially with the monopoly of that narcotic, it did not appear that, under the condition of subsisting treaties, the Nizam could be called on to prohibit his subjects from engaging in the traffic.

A great proportion of the Hyderabad territories is occupied jaghiredars, who are of two descriptions, *viz.* Hindoo jaghiredars and zemindars, such as the raja of Solapoor, whose ancestors possessed their estates from the first sovereigns of the Deccan, and over whom the Nizam exercises a very uncertain and undefined authority; the other description of zemindars consists of the military officers in the Nizam's service, in number from forty to fifty. Almost the whole country, with the exception of the land set apart for religious purposes, the crown lands, and small parts held by old Hindoo zemindars, is under the management of some description of jaghiredar. Since the introduction of red cloth among the Nizam's troops, the principal jaghiredars have adopted the same mode of clothing their infantry, amounting to about 7,000 men. In 1812 the British subsidiary force stationed in this part of the Deccan consisted of one regiment of native cavalry, one regiment of European, and two regiments of native infantry at Hyderabad. At Jalna, two regiments of native cavalry and four battalions of native infantry, and a troop of horse artillery. The officer commanding this force receives his instructions from the resident at the court of the Nizam, and the consequent reports respecting it are made to the supreme government in Bengal. It was originally intended by the British government that the Nizam's troops should be left to defend his highness's territories from the incursions of all freebooters, without the assistance or co-operation of the subsidiary force, except in the event of extreme exigence. They were, however, after experience, found wholly unequal to the task, being ill-paid, mutinous, and little disposed to exertion. Besides this, being composed of distinct parties and squads belonging to persons of rank residing at the court of Hyderabad, and commanded by their own officers, no combination of movement or unity of action could be expected from them.

In the time of Azim-ul-Omrah, the dewan's fees were only one-eighth of each rupee; but Meer Allum, on his accession to office, raised them to three-sixteenths. When Mooner-ul-Mulk was appointed dewan, it was determined that he should receive a fixed salary of ten lacks of rupees per annum, the excess of the minister's fees beyond that sum to be accounted for to government. From a statement given in on this occasion, it appeared that the minister's fees, or commission for seven years previous, averaged about seventeen lacks per annum. The peshcar's (a head financial officer) fees were estimated at 2,86,000 rupees per annum. It is difficult to ascertain the real produce of the jaghires held by the Nizam's officers, but the sum total, upon tolerable grounds, has been computed to average eighty-five lacks per annum. The offerings transmitted from all parts of the country, and presented on the Nizam's birth-day, are included in the public accounts; but those presented on ordinary occasions directly to the Nizam amount to one lack of rupees per annum, and are always retained by his highness in his own custody. The aggregate may be thus computed:

Average receipts per annum..................Rs.	1,85,87,214
Minister's fees	17,18,342
Peshcar's do...............	2,86,000
Amount of jaghires......	85,00,000
Probable amount of presents	1,00,000
Average of the estimated gross revenues of the Nizam's government per annum	2,91,91,946

The Nizam receives from the Peshcar 80,000 rupees per month for the current expenses of his personal establishment; but a large proportion of this, and probably the whole of the presents, are deposited in his private treasury. Besides these sources of accumulation, there is another appropriation from the minister's fees of about eight lacks, and the value of jewels and other articles annually purchased by the Nizam averages about five lacks. They are paid by the peshcar, and the amount is entered in his accounts under the head of commissions. In 1811 the deficit of the receipts, in comparison with the disbursements, continued to increase, and the whole country was in so deplorable a condition, that it was utterly unable to support any additional extortion.

While Telingana existed as an independent *Hindoo sovereignty*, it comprehended most of the tracts lying between the Krishna and Godavery rivers, the capital of which was Warangol. At an early period it was invaded and partly conquered by the Mahomedans, and afterwards formed part of the Great Bhamenee empire of the Deccan. On the dissolution of that state, Telingana became again the seat of an independent government under the name of Golconda, the first sovereign being Cooly Cuttub Shah, who established the Cuttub Shahy dynasty of Golconda. He began to reign in 1512, and was assassinated in 1551.

Jumsheed Cuttub Shah; died A.D. 1558.

Ibrahim Cuttub Shah; died 1581.

Cooly Cuttub Shah; died 1586.—This prince founded the city of Hyderabad, and having no son, was succeeded by his brother Mahomed. The successor to the last-named prince was Abdallah Cuttub Shah, who became tributary to the Mogul emperor Shah Jehan; and in this dependence his kingdom remained until 1690, when Golconda was taken by Aurengzebe, and Abou Hossein, the reigning prince, made prisoner, and confined for life in the fortress of Dowletabad, where he died in the year 1704.

On the destruction of the Mogul empire, after the death of Aurengzebe, Nizam ul Mulk obtained possession of the Mahomedan conquests in the Deccan about the year 1717; he died in 1748, aged (it is said) 104 years, leaving six sons, Ghazi ud Deen, Nassir Jung, Salabut Jung, Bassalet Jung, and Moghul Ali.

Nassir Jung being on the spot at Boorhanpoor when his father died, succeeded, and was assassinated in 1750.

Muzuffer Jung, the grandson of Nizam ul Mulk, was placed on the throne, and assassinated in 1751.

Salabut Jung, by the influence of the French, was then proclaimed, and reigned until 1761, when he was imprisoned, and in 1763 put to death by his brother, Nizam Ali, who ascended the blood-stained throne. Nearly the whole of his reign was a scene of intricate negociation or impending hostility with his rapacious neighbours the Maharattas; and that he was not finally devoured, was entirely owing to the intimacy of the political connexion he latterly contracted with the British government. During a temporary separation of interests in 1795 war with the Maharattas actually took place, when the Nizam advanced to Beeder to meet Dowlet Row Sindia, who had drawn great part of his then strong army from Upper Hindostan. An action was fought, which was followed by the retreat of the Nizam to Kurdlah, where, allowing himself to be shut up and deprived of supplies, he was compelled to sign a convention, by the terms of which he admitted all the Maharatta claims, agreed to cede to them the fort and district of Dowletabad, to pay three crores of rupees, and to deliver Azim ul Omrah, his prime minister, as a hostage, into the custody of Nana Furnavese.

That he was defeated in the abovementioned battle by Sindia's disciplined legions will not be thought surprising, after perusing with atten-

tion the following official description, written in 1815, of a portion of his own troops. The late Nizam had two battalions of female sepoys of one thousand each, regularly trained to the manual and platoon exercises, which mounted guard in the interior of the palace, and accompanied the ladies of the palace when they moved. They were with the Nizam during the war with the Maharattas in 1795, and were present at the battle of Kurdlah, where at least they did not behave worse than the rest of the army. One of these battalions was commanded by Mama Burrun, and the other by Mama Chumbehee, two of the principal female attendants of the Nizam's family. The present Nizam still keeps up a reduced establishment of these women, and Mooner ul Moolk (the prime minister in 1815) has also a party of them. They are dressed as British sepoys formerly used to be, carry musquets, and do the French exercise with tolerable correctness. They are called the Zuffer pultuns, or victorious battalions, and the females composing them are called Gardunees, a corruption of our guard. Their pay is five rupees per month.

In 1798 the British interests at the court of Hyderabad, which had been greatly impaired, or rather nearly subverted, by the increasing influence of a strong French party, were restored by the vigorous measures of the Marquis Wellesley, immediately after his assumption of the supreme government. The force under M. Raymond consisted of 13,000 men, and constituted, in fact, the only efficient portion of the Nizam's military strength; and from the known principles of that adventurer, and his connexion with France, there was little doubt that if the chance of war ever seemed to waver, he would co-operate with whatever foe opposed the British. The Nizam's minister, Azim ul Omra, had for some time viewed with considerable alarm a growing influence, which he was no longer able to control, and in consequence was ready to promote the objects of the British government. In September 1798 the Nizam was prevailed on to accede to a treaty, according to which a detachment of six thousand men, with guns and artillery-men in proportion, were to be entertained by his highness, and the subsidy raised from six to twenty-four lacks of rupees per annum. It was also agreed that the officers and servants of the French party should be secured and delivered up, not as prisoners of war, but to be restored to their own country, without waiting for exchange or cartel. While these negociations were going on, a force was assembled in the Northern Circars under Col. Roberts, who on receiving intimation from the resident, Capt. Achilles Kirkpatrick, marched to Hyderabad, where the French troops were mostly stationed. These he adroitly surrounded, and resistance appearing hopeless, the officers were secured, the corps dissolved, and the men disbanded without bloodshed, and their place in the Nizam's service occupied by British troops.

It being found necessary in 1800 to augment the subsidiary force stationed in the Hyderabad dominions to 8,000 regular infantry and 1,000 regular cavalry, a new treaty was entered into on the 12th October of that year, when the Nizam was induced, with the view of insuring punctuality of payment, to cede to the British government all the territories he had acquired by the treaty of Seringapatam in 1792, and, also under that of Mysore in 1799. Certain of the tracts ceded by this treaty being inconveniently situated to the north of the Toombudra, it was determined, for the purpose of rendering the boundary well defined, that his highness should retain Copaul and Gujunderghur, and other districts north of the Toombudra, and in lieu thereof assign Adoni, and whatever territory he possessed to the south of that river, or to the south of the Krishna, below its junction with the Toombudra; the estimated value of the whole being about seventy-two lacks of rupees per annum. These arrangements being accomplished, it

was determined that all British claims on the Nizam, of every description, should cease: from which date also all demands on account of the subsidiary force were to terminate, as the whole was in future to be subsisted and paid by the British government. By this treaty it was likewise decided that all external political relations should be exclusively managed by the British government, which undertook to protect his highness from invasion from without and internal insurrection, and to procure a total exemption from all claims for choute on the part of the Maharattas. His liberation from this harassing demand was to the Nizam an important favour, as the choute levied on the districts within his country by the Peshwa and his jagheerdars amounted to forty-five lacks per annum.

In 1803 Nizam Ali finished his long life and reign, and was succeeded on the Hyderabad throne by his eldest legitimate son, Secunder Jah, the present reigning Nizam. He was entirely indebted to the British government for the tranquillity of his accession, and as a token of his gratitude offered to relinquish the tribute of seven lacks, paid on account of the Guntoor circar; but the acceptance of this douceur was declined by the Marquis Wellesley, then governor-general. Soon after the Asophia (Nizam's) dominions received a very considerable augmentation; for in 1804 a partition treaty having been concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja, the latter ceded to the Nizam all the country of which he collected the revenue in conjunction with the Nizam, and fixed the Nagpoor frontier towards the west at the Wurda river, from where it issues out of the Injardy hills, to its junction with the Godavery. The hills on which Nernallah and Gawelghur stand, with a district contiguous, to the amount of four lacks of rupees revenue, to remain with the Nagpoor Raja; but every other tract south of the Injardy hills, and west of the Wurda, to be transferred to the Nizam. From Sindia he received all the territories that chief possessed prior to 1803, situated to the south of the Ajuntee hills, including the fort and fertile district of Jalnapoor, the town of Gandapoor, and all the other districts between that range of hills and the Godavery. These were, in fact, first ceded by Sindia to the British government: but immediately afterwards transferred in perpetuity to the Nizam. In consequence of these arrangements the Hyderabad sovereignty received a great increase of territory, and obtained for the first time a compact and well-defined boundary.

Secunder Jah for a short time expressed the utmost gratitude to the British government, both for the tranquillity of his accession and the augmentation of his kingdom; but it soon appeared that his conduct was regulated by no fixed principles, being directed by a few ignorant and vicious creatures who surrounded his person, and whom he permitted to control his actions. The most officious of these were Assud Yar Khan and Jaffer Yar Khan, his highness's foster-brothers, and two individuals, named Burkendauze Khan and Rozdar Khan. The two persons first named were low illiterate creatures; the other two had been common sepoys, and had been noticed by the Nizam for their skill in shooting, ever since they had undertaken to exercise it on the late prime minister, Azim ul Omra. Although these persons were never permitted to sit down when the British resident was present, they were on other occasions often indulged with seats, and honoured with the familiar conversation of his highness, while noblemen of rank and character, compelled to attend the court, were kept at a distance with the appearance of studied indignity. Like most of the factious miscreants with which the city of Hyderabad swarmed, his highness's associates evinced a decided hostility to the British government, and of course to the prime minister, Meer Allum, who disdained to take the usual methods of obtaining their

good offices; while their enmity was fostered by his rival Raja Mohiput Ram, in prosecution of whose schemes they were accustomed to exercise a species of vulgar wit on the English, to alarm the Nizam's mind with exaggerated representations of their ambition, and to extol the prowess of Holcar and Sindia. The governor-general of India was represented as a fictitious functionary, acting without the authority of the English government, and the arraignment of the Marquis Wellesley in the House of Commons was adduced as a proof of the assertion. As part of their system, they were in the habit of prompting the Nizam to resist every proposition whatever from the British authorities, and of abusing the minister and his adherents as British partizans, always concluding with the most fulsome and extravagant compliments on his highness's sagacity, penetration, and courage.

This conjuncture of affairs presented externally an appearance of solidity to the alliance, while in reality the foundation was utterly decayed, for in the event of war, not only would the resources and forces claimable by treaty have been withheld, but the British subsidiary force would have been virtually placed in the country of an enemy, and consequently exposed to all the hazards of such a situation, without the advantage of the occupation of posts, the establishment of depôts, or security of communication with the British territory. No alternative was therefore left, but either to abandon the alliance altogether, or to make an effort to replace it on its proper basis by a direct and decided interference. The adoption of this measure, however, appeared so fundamental a deviation from the system professed by the Marquis Cornwallis, during his second mission to India, and also by his successor Sir George Barlow, that the latter thought it necessary to state some argument in vindication of the measure. On this subject he observed, that the adoption of the system of non-interference presupposed a just conception on the part of the Nizam of the true principles and solid advantages of the alliance, and also a sincere disposition to maintain it. It also presupposed a degree of firmness, discernment, and dignity on his part, which would lead him to reject the councils of profligate and interested advisers, who should endeavour to persuade him that the obligations of the alliance were those of degradation, and as such urge him to renounce it. Unsupported by these just and reasonable presumptions, Sir George considered the system of non-interference as altogether deprived of its foundation, and that the change on the part of the British government would be adopted, not from choice, but from necessity. He viewed the measure, not as a renunciation of general political principles, but as extorted by the general impracticability of applying those principles to the condition of his highness's government, without the certain loss of the benefits expected from an adherence to them; the mere adoption of a measure of security against a great and impending danger.

The propriety of interfering with the Nizam's internal government being in this manner decided, he was in 1807 addressed in such terms by the British government as would convince him, but without specifically mentioning them, that it was acquainted with the secret machinations he had been carrying on. He was also informed that the British government would not tacitly suffer the benefit of the alliance to be hazarded, or ultimately subverted, by the insidious intrigues of designing persons, who in furtherance of their own objects would induce him to believe that his interest and security were distinct from those of his allies, and who, according to the suggestions of the moment, made every proposal from that quarter appear an object of contempt or alarm.

While these discussions were going on, it became necessary for Meer Allum, the prime minister, to take

up his abode at the British residency, assassination being then so common at Hyderabad as to render him apprehensive of being carried off by unfair means; and the Buckshy Begum, the Nizam's mother, and head of the Asophia family, was so much affected by her son's disgraceful conduct, that she implored the resident to interfere and rescue him from the hands of his profligate associates. Affairs having reached this crisis, the Nizam himself became alarmed, and began to manifest contrition for his extravagant and unprincely behaviour towards his family, made his apologies to the Begums, and requested their advice regarding the course of policy he ought to pursue, and it appears they counselled him to adhere strictly to his alliance with the British. The resident then being apprized of the Nizam's repentance, proceeded to bring forward the following propositions, *viz.*

1. The dismissal of Raja Mohiput Ram and Ismael Yar Jung.

2. That some provision should be made for Noor ul Omrah.

3. That the civil and military authorities of Berar should be separated, and entrusted to persons in whom the British government could confide.

4. That the resident should be admitted to an audience when he required it.

These propositions, after undergoing some slight modification, were ratified by the Nizam, who expressed his unalterable attachment to the British nation, and his resolution to conform to all the stipulations of the alliance. It still, however, continued necessary vigilantly to watch and rigorously to oppose the recurrence of these evils, now, in appearance, corrected. On the other hand, such constant interference as would prove vexatious to the Nizam, or excite in his mind a sense of dependence, was cautiously avoided, the legitimate objects of the alliance being perfectly compatible with the free exercise of his highness's rights of sovereignty within his own dominions.

In process of time, as Secunder Jah's mind became less gloomy, he proposed a hunting excursion, in the course of which, having passed near to the British cantonments, he was prevailed on to inspect the lines. He was received with a royal salute, after which, having looked at the ordnance, he expressed his admiration of the appearance and discipline of the troops, and paid many compliments to Colonel Montresor, their commander. This casual visit only derives importance, because his highness had been led by his private advisers to believe that the subsidiary brigade had been secretly augmented with the view of getting possession of Hyderabad and Golconda, seizing on his person, and placing another prince on the throne. These apprehensions were all dissipated, and on his return home, when the females of his family made him the offerings usual after a safe return from any perilous enterprize, he refused to receive them, declaring with indignation that he had been deceived with respect to the designs of the British government, to which he would in future entrust the security of his person and protection of his throne.

The reconciliation was, however, of very short duration; for on the death of the prime minister, Meer Allum, in 1808, new difficulties arose, with endless intrigue and discussion, caused by the spirit of perverseness and caprice which distinguishes the Nizam's character. The British government was at first disposed to support the pretensions of Shums ul Omra, a nobleman of excellent character; but the Nizam objected to him that, in the first place, he was not a Shiah in religion, nor a Seid by birth; secondly, that he was allied to Feridoon Jah, his highness's brother; and thirdly, that he was at the head of the pagah (a sort of body guard) party, an office that had always been maintained by the sovereigns of the Deccan as a counterpoise to the power of the minister, and that the possession of that office was consequently ineligible to the ministerial office, as he would there-

by engross the whole power of the state, civil and military.

To the first objection, Capt. Sydenham, then resident at Hyderabad, replied, that the selection of a minister should be regulated by political considerations alone, and could have no relation to the religious tenets of the different candidates. The second objection he endeavoured to repel by referring to the altered circumstances of the state, and the absence of all danger from his brother's rivalry, while his highness's throne was sustained by the arms and resources of the British empire. To the third objection Capt. Sydenham observed, that there was no longer any necessity to secure the obedience of the officers of government by employing them as checks on each other, as it was now in the power of the Nizam to keep them all in due subordination; besides which, the British alliance, he remarked, had wholly altered the relative condition of the Pagah chieftains. Formerly the chief of the Pagahs was entrusted with the care of his highness's person, was foremost in battle, and led his troops on all services of danger or desperation; now the case was changed, for the British detachment, in fact, formed the Pagah party of the Nizam's army, where that confidence was placed which had formerly been reposed in the Pagah corps.

These reasons, however, not sufficing to satisfy the Nizam, Mooneer ul Mulk, the son of Azim ul Omira, was, after much discussion, appointed prime minister; and his character, as illustrative of a native court and its political instruments, deserves notice. Although the descendant of a prime minister, he is not destitute of abilities; but personally he is extremely pusillanimous, a perpetual liar, and everlasting intriguer, with polite and plausible manners. He is a true believer in the doctrines of astrology, and maintains an establishment of soothsayers in his house, by whose predictions not only all his public business is conducted, but also the ordinary pursuits of life, down to the auspicious moment for eating and drinking. His questions to these sages are generally proposed in writing, and so firm is his belief in their prescience, that he always cautions them in predicting the event not to consult his wishes, but to tell him the real truth, whatever it may be.

His master, the Nizam, is still more irrational, and is known to be occasionally afflicted with temporary insanity. This infirmity, in 1811, reached to such an excess, that he no longer trusted the preparation of his food to any person, abstaining from every dish he had not cooked with his own hands. Sitting in sullen silence in the female apartments, where none but his menial servants were admitted, he ceased to appear in public, and wholly neglected the affairs of government. Even in better times, when his intellects are more composed, he continues to evince a strong and restless feeling of distrust towards the British nation, which, however absurd the notion may appear, he considers hostile to his interests, and desirous of aggrandizing their empire at his expense; and so powerful is the influence of this delusion over his mind, that he twists and exaggerates the most trivial circumstance to suit the bias of his temper. His greatest misfortune, and the cause of most of the errors of his life, is the awkward uneasiness he feels in the society of the only persons who are suitable companions for him, or whose presence is likely in the slightest degree to recall him to a sense of his own dignity, and of the duty he owes his subjects.

In 1815 the Nizam's sons residing at Hyderabad collected around them all the dissolute vagabonds and Patan bravoes, with which the city swarmed, and committed the most flagitious excesses. The most profligate of these princes were the two youngest, Shums ud Dowlah and Mubariz ud Dowlah, who were supported by the Nizam's wife and mother. In the August of that year they proceeded to the extremity of seizing an attendant on the British embassy for the

purpose of extorting money, and were in consequence apprehended and removed to Golconda, but not without considerable bloodshed, and the death of a British officer belonging to the escort. When at last despatched to the fortress, the two ladies resolved to accompany them, in hopes of influencing the Nizam to relent; but on this occasion he evinced unexpected firmness, declaring that he believed the Begums wished to get rid of himself instead of the English. The principal subordinate instigators of the tumult were subsequently seized and executed.

In A.D. 1818, after an interval of four years, during which he had never passed the gate of his palace, the Nizam, accompanied by some ladies of his family, and attended by Mooneer ud Mulk, Raja Chundoo Laul, and other ministers, went to a garden a little way to the southward of the city, and in the opposite direction to the residency. The troops assembled to escort him on this occasion were estimated at about 8,000, but probably did not exceed two-thirds of that number. While on this excursion he hunted sometimes, but in general he secluded himself with his usual privacy, and in three weeks returned to his palace in the city. The effort of making the excursion, and the time selected, were so much at variance with his accustomed habits, that they excited no small surprise, and many extraordinary motives were assigned to account for such a display of unseasonable activity. But although the Nizam's aversion to the control of the British was sufficiently notorious, and his wishes for the success of the Peshwa Bajerow equally so, yet if on this occasion he had been stimulated by his servants to the adoption of active measures, they certainly had greatly overrated both his boldness and perseverance.

Notwithstanding this contumacy, on the conclusion of the Pindary war in that year, and on the expulsion of the Peshwa, the British government, which had succeeded to all his rights, not only gave up to the Nizam the arrears of choute due by him, but abrogated all claims whatever that the Poona state had upon that of Hyderabad. Some exchange of territory, alike convenient to both parties, were made, and the whole of these arrangements were reduced into the form of a treaty on the 12th of December 1822. Soon afterwards the supreme government, whose Bengal treasury was overflowing, redeemed the peshcush of 6,30,630 rupees paid annually to the Nizam on account of the Guntoor Circar, for a capital sum of one million two hundred pounds sterling. At present (1827) the powers of the state are principally centred in Raja Chundoo Laul (a seik of Nanok Shah's persuasion), while the apathy of his master seems to increase with his years. But although the efficiency given to the military establishment, by the introduction of the British, has no doubt contributed to the maintenance of public tranquillity, yet it may still be asserted that the Hyderabad territories are as ill governed as any part of India.—(*Public MS. Documents, Sydenham, H. Russell, A. Kirkpatrick, Ferishta, Orme, Malcolm, Blacker, Heyne, &c.*)

HYDERABAD.—The capital of the preceding province and of the Nizam's dominions, situated in lat. 17° 15′ N., lon. 78° 35′ E. Hyderabad or Baugnuggur stands on the south side of the Musah river, which runs very rapidly in the rains, but in the dry season has scarcely two feet of water. It is surrounded by a stone wall, which is no defence against artillery, but which formerly served as a protection against the incursions of predatory cavalry. Within the wall the city is about four miles in length, by three in breadth. The streets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved. The houses are mostly of one story, built of wood and other combustible materials. Over the river Musah there is a large arched bridge, sufficiently broad to allow two carriages to pass. The most remarkable buildings are the palace and mosques, of

which last there are a considerable number, this city having long been the principal Mahomedan station in the Deccan. About six miles to the west is the celebrated fortress of Golconda, occupying the summit of a conical hill, and by the natives deemed impregnable. Secunderabad, where the subsidiary brigade is cantoned, stands about three miles north of the city, and is now a large and populous military village. The surrounding country has a barren rugged aspect, and the ranges of hills have a remarkably jumbled irregular appearance. Vegetables and grapes grow in this vicinity to considerable perfection, which is more owing to the temperature of the climate than the goodness of the soil.

Hyderabad being one of the few remaining Mogul governments, more of the old forms and ceremonies are retained at the Nizam's court than at any other of Hindostan. Some of the higher and wealthier Mahomedans use a few articles of European manufacture in their dress, and in the furniture of their houses, but this has principally occurred among the ministers of the Nizam. These articles consist of glass ware, lustres, china, chintz covering for sofas, and some articles of plate after the European fashion. The nobles at Hyderabad have either been bred up as soldiers or courtiers, and expend their incomes in keeping up as large a retinue of servants and dependants as their wealth will allow, or they consume their property in the profligacy and corruption of the court where they reside. Within the city the Nizam possesses large magazines, in which are deposited the presents received at various times from the different native and European powers. The rooms are filled from the floor to near the ceiling with bales of woollens, cases of glass, glass-ware, china-ware, clocks, watches, and other European manufactures. These articles have been received as presents by the reigning Nizam, his father, and grandfather, some so far back as the time of Duploix and Bussy. They have ever since continued locked up in the magazines, where they are likely to remain.

This city, formerly named Baugnuggur, was founded about the year 1585, by Mahomed Cooly Cuttub Shah. It was taken and plundered by the Mogul armies of Aurengzebe, A.D. 1687, the principal inhabitants having previously retired to the neighbouring fortress of Golconda. The late Nizam Ali transferred the royal residence from Aurungabad, which had hitherto been the capital, to this place; the former, owing to the fluctuation of his limits, being latterly placed in a corner of his dominions, and too near the Maharatta frontier. It has never since experienced any molestation from without, and having been the residence of the court, has progressively increased in wealth and population. Of the latter no very accurate estimate has ever been made, but from a combination of circumstances there is reason to suppose it approaches or exceeds 200,000 persons, including the suburbs.

Travelling distance from Calcutta by the northern Circars 902 miles; by Nagpoor 1,043; from Madras 352; from Bombay 480; from Delhi 923; from Nagpoor 321; from Poona 387; and from Seringapatam 406 miles. — (*Sydenham*, *H. Russell*, *Heyne*, *Upton*, *Rennell*, *&c.*)

Hyderabad.—The capital of the modern principality of Sinde; lat. 25° 22′ N., lon. 68° 41′ E. The fortress stands on a rocky hill, the base of which, distant about 1,000 paces, is washed by a branch of the Indus named the Fulalee. The nearest point of the main channel of the Indus bears from the fort W. by S. three miles. It is of an irregular pentagonal figure, built to suit the shape of the mass of rock on which it stands, defended by round towers, and a high brick wall perforated with loop-holes. In many places the sides of the hill are so steep, that the ascent to the fortress would be difficult, even were it breached at the foundation. The weakest part of the fort

is towards the south-east, opposite to a break in the rock from the Fulalee. The northern side of the fort has a dry ditch cut in the rock, but not above twelve feet broad. The walls have loop-holes for matchlocks, but the artillery is placed so high as to be useless against an enemy very near the fort. Its natural situation is strong, and the whole is capable of resisting every native attack, but would present a feeble opposition to European assailants. On all these walls there were, in 1809, about seventy pieces of artillery mounted, but except eight or ten they were all in a very bad condition.

There are several handsome mosques within the fort, but no buildings worthy of notice in its vicinity, except Gholaum Shah's (the founder of the principality) tomb, on a hill to the south of the fort. The shops in the bazar are kept well supplied, and are mostly tenanted by Hindoo Banyans. Although no encouragement is given to industry by the Ameers, the artizans are numerous and skilful, especially the armourers, who are noted for the excellence of their workmanship, and the artificers who embroider in leather.

The soil in this vicinity is of a light sandy nature and colour, yet very fruitful when properly cultivated and watered. Two miles and a half to the south of Hyderabad is a table-land, extending about two miles, and twelve miles to the southward is a range of rocky hills, part of which approaches the Fulalee, and is called the Gunga hills. Three miles west by south is a village on the eastern bank of the Indus, from which boats are constantly crossing with passengers to Cotrie, on the opposite side, which is on the route from Tatta to Hyderabad. This city is the head-quarters of the Ameers or present rulers of Sinde, yet the revenue collected only amounts to the trifling sum of 60,000 rupees per annum, and the population to about 15,000 persons. There is not, however, any standing army kept at Hyderabad, each Ameer retaining a few troops, which serve in time of peace to garrison the fort.—(*Maxfield, Smith, Kinneir, Pottinger, &c.*)

HYDERGHUR.—A town in the province of Oude, thirty-two miles S.E. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 37′ N., lon. 81° 17′ E.

END OF VOLUME I.